

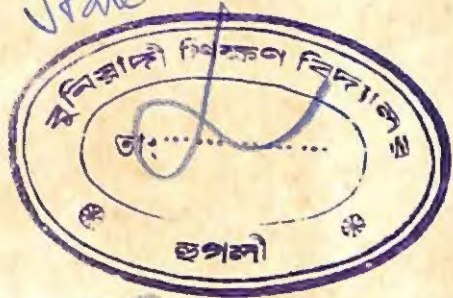
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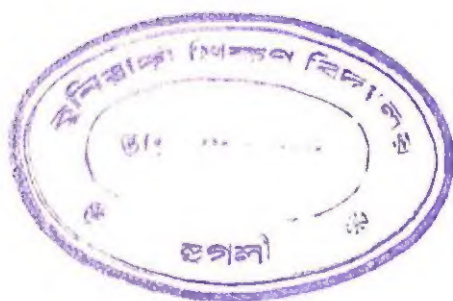
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Group Activities in College
and Secondary School



OTHER BOOKS BY RUTH STRANG

AN INTRODUCTION TO CHILD STUDY

New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. (Revised) 1938

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER IN PERSONNEL WORK

New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. 3rd printing, 1938

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT AND GUIDANCE IN COLLEGE AND SECONDARY SCHOOL

New York: Harper & Brothers, 1934

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New York: Harper & Brothers, 1937

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Lancaster, Pa.: The Science Press, 1938. Revised, 1940

PUPIL PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE

New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940

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Group Activities in College and Secondary School

BY

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*Professor of Education
Teachers College, Columbia University*

Revised Edition



HARPER & BROTHERS PUBLISHERS

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GROUP ACTIVITIES
IN COLLEGE AND SECONDARY SCHOOL

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PREFACE

IN 1934 the first volume in a series of summaries of investigations in the broad field of personnel work was published. That volume which bore the general title of the series, *Personal Development and Guidance in College and Secondary School*, covered the areas of personnel programs and workers, admissions, orientation, and educational guidance. The second volume in the series, *Behavior and Background of Students in College and Secondary School* (1937), reviewed research on intelligence, achievement, attitudes, interest, adjustment, expenditure of time and money, and social and economic background of high school and college students. The third volume, published the same year, summarized the meager research on counseling technics—interview, observation and anecdotal records, autobiography, case study, and records. The present volume, on which the author has been working for the past five years, is the fourth in the series and deals with group work on the same educational levels. A fifth volume will subsequently treat of experiences in vocational guidance.

There is need today for a clarification of philosophy and values of student activities, for a presentation of evidence from experience and experiment on many specific questions, and for an orientation of the discussion of group activities toward the needs of individual students and their communities. Although hundreds of articles have been written on student activities, few significant researches have been published. With the exception of studies of relationships and several recent experiments, the literature on extra-curriculum activities is predominantly descriptive, consisting largely of surveys of group work in educational institutions and accounts of programs and procedures in individual schools and colleges. Accordingly, this volume is more anecdotal and less statistical than the second volume, for a summary cannot rise above the level of the investigations being summarized. It represents a combination of best opinion and practice as well as results of investigation. To reject the suggestions of perspicacious group leaders just because their procedures, hypotheses, and conclusions have been derived from experience rather than from experimentation, could not be justified in a volume of this kind.

In the first chapter the nature of groups and knowledge, attitudes,

and skills to which an adequate group-work program should contribute will be described. In the following chapters ways and means of attaining these desired results will be described, and, in the last chapter, attempts to evaluate student activities will be summarized. The aim has been to review the literature and research on the dynamics of group activities, their origin and growth, the philosophy and psychology underlying them, and their specific contributions to individuals and society.

This service of summarizing and synthesizing scattered surveys of information has been recognized as valuable from the time of Bacon's early synthesis of existing scientific knowledge to the most recent volumes on *Reading in General Education*, published by the American Council on Education and on *Mental Hygiene*, written by Mandel Sherman, 1941. It is hoped that this fourth volume on this important phase of student personnel work will be helpful to faculty members who have the responsibility for sponsoring student activities and to teachers and personnel workers in training, as well as to deans, counselors, directors of student activities, and other special personnel officers.

Any book is, in a sense, a co-operative enterprise because even the most apparently original ideas have evolved through the minds of many persons. In a volume of this kind the contribution of others is especially obvious. To all the writers and publishers from whom facts and opinions have been gleaned the author is deeply indebted. Special recognition should be given to such leaders in group work in secondary schools and colleges, John M. Brewer, Arthur J. Jones, Harry C. McKown, Earle U. Rugg, Joseph Roemer, Paul W. Terry, F. Stuart Chapin, Sarah M. Sturtevant and Elwood K. Fretwell who, during many years, have developed the theory and process of group work in educational institutions, and to Marion Brown at University High School, Oakland, California, Helen Pritchard at Hartford High School, Hartford, Connecticut, Sadie Campbell of the Iowa State Teachers College, Alice C. Lloyd of the University of Michigan, Thyrsa W. Amos and her associates at the University of Pittsburgh, Sarah Blanding of the University of Kentucky, Esther Dayman at Mills College, Katherine Reed at the State Teachers College at Buffalo, Dorothy Stratton at Purdue University, Irma E. Voigt and staff at Ohio State University, Porter Butts at the University of Wisconsin, Frances M. Tallmadge and associates at Antioch College, and many others who have developed excellent programs of group work in educational institutions. To the many students who have been interested in and contributed to this volume

the author is especially grateful. For special help on the bibliography the author is indebted to Ethel C. Crockett, Jeannette Scudder, Ruth C. Smith, and Katherine Spooner. To Lurana S. Lord for the specific account of the group work at University High School, Oakland, California, to Roberta Winans for her contribution to the chapter on group technics, to Barbara S. Burks, Margaret Huntley, Lucile Pollock and to Lois Fahs for their critical reading of several chapters from different points of view, and to Alma Fogarty for her highly skillful and intelligent typing of the manuscript the author is especially indebted.

RUTH STRANG

New York City
June 1, 1941





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PREFACE TO 1946 EDITION

Because this volume is, in a sense, an historical record of student activities, all except the introductory chapter has been retained in its original form. From the detailed information in the book, classes in group work can learn about the kind of extra-class activities that have been developed, the procedures and techniques that have been used, and the results that have been achieved. Having acquired this background, they can spend their class time in discussion, committee work, analysis of their dislikes and prejudices, and socio-drama or role-playing experiences, which are so effective in changing attitudes and ways of behaving toward people, in gaining insight regarding oneself and others, and in learning to "feel with" others. Teachers-in-service can turn to the chapters dealing with the particular activity they are sponsoring and find out what other people have done about it.

Fortunately, a convenient summary of references published between October 1, 1941, and October 1, 1944, is available in Chapter VI, "Guidance Through Groups," *Review of Educational Research*, XV (April 1945), 164-172. For this reason, it did not seem necessary to incorporate these forty-three recent references in the bibliography of this new edition.

The first chapter, however, was rewritten in order to put more emphasis on the group-work process, the dynamics of group activities, and the need for better understanding of the interaction among members and leaders of groups through which personal development takes place and social goals are achieved.

RUTH STRANG

New York City
January 15, 1946

Group Activities in College
and Secondary School





CHAPTER I

NATURE AND VALUES OF GROUP ACTIVITIES

GROUP activities in secondary schools and colleges have world-wide significance. A safe and secure post-war world depends upon co-operation among nations. Co-operation among nations depends upon the development of understanding and good-will among individuals. Good-will emanates from the humane spirit permeating people everywhere. The humane spirit develops through many satisfying experiences in working together for the welfare of all (218, 1930). These kinds of experiences may be provided in group activities beginning in the earliest years and continuing through adolescence.

Classes, clubs, interest groups, dormitory units, discussion groups, and social events provide valuable experiences in working together; they are the training grounds for true democracy. In these social laboratories students and teachers work out concretely problems of the democratic way of life. If they encounter obstacles to co-operation, they try to understand and overcome them. If their efforts are blocked by self-interest, they search for constructive psychological substitutes for intense competition among individuals. Thus they learn to bridge the gap between democracy as an ideal and democracy as a reality.

A. CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

A preliminary understanding of student activities may be gained by clarifying the meaning of certain words repeatedly used in discussing activities in college and secondary school. What is the nature of a *group*? What do we mean by *group work*? What are the characteristics of the *leader* of a group? What goes on in *group counseling*? What is the difference between *group work* and *group therapy*? How is *counseling* related to *group work*?

I. NATURE OF GROUPS

A group is the product of participating persons; it is more than an aggregation of persons. Znaniecki described the group as "a synthesis of members' roles" (649:799). Its common property, according to Park (441, 1939), is a body of traditions, under-

standings, sentiments, and ideologies that make collective action possible. Bird (39:808, 1940) attributed to the group a "kind of super-individual social self, a synthesis of the social selves ascribed to its members," a "certain property, material and spiritual." In a sense, each group has a personality of its own. It may exhibit reactions of inferiority, delusions of persecution or of grandeur, elation, or depression.

All members of a group, however, do not perform the role of member in the same way. Individual differences and deviations from the general pattern exist within the collective group character. For example, Mead (393, 1937) noted that a strong ego development can occur in quite different groups—in individualistic, competitive, or co-operative societies. To study a group, it is therefore often necessary, as Menger (397, 1938) advocated, to break it into consistent, harmonious sub-groups having similar constellations of attitudes.

The distinctive characteristics of a group are "created by interaction." Through conversation and other kinds of communication, there is a meeting of minds in which co-operative and creative thinking takes place. From this thinking, over a period of time, growth ensues.

In educational institutions groups of varying degrees of internal unification are found. They may be described on a scale ranging from the most highly organized groups, almost completely under the control of school officials, to the most spontaneous and unorganized groups (609, 1939). The majority of classrooms would be placed high on the organized end of the scale; fraternities and clubs toward the middle; and "bull sessions" and other unsupervised groups at the unorganized end.

Life in the highly organized and formal group is likely to be tedious, because every member is subjected to an alien will. Students can stand only so much of this kind of domination. If they are forced to be respectful, listen to talks in which they are not interested, and carry out other persons' purposes too long, the result is frustration, possibly rebellion. Group leaders should try to imagine how a dynamic person feels under such conditions.

The spontaneous group, on the other hand, provides emotional leeway for the individual, and consequently influences him as the organized and autocratic group does not. If the spontaneous groups on a campus die out, the school goes dead; students will not come back. Obviously the spontaneous groups are difficult for school authorities to control. They create serious problems when their

purposes are at variance with the purposes of the institution. Then conflict arises between two social orders, one faculty dominated and the other student controlled. As a result, disciplinary problems arise and the personnel worker, in an attempt to mediate, is often caught between two fires.

Under such circumstances the skillful director of group activities may do several things. He may try to inject real spontaneity into faculty-approved groups, or at least move toward more spontaneity. He may attempt to resuscitate a formal, relatively lifeless group by injecting into it new objectives, provided that the faculty controlling it is not resistant. Sometimes he may solve the problem by winning over some of the spontaneous or semi-organized groups into allying themselves with institutional interests. Frequently he may incorporate both organized and spontaneous groups into a harmonious program. If the director of group activities studies the causal processes operating, evaluates inherent difficulties in the past and faculty opposition in the present, and if he skillfully tries to avoid all possible conflicts, he can eventually work out an intelligent social program. Such conflicts as occur will then be met with insight, not with hypocrisy; with inventiveness, not compromise.

The terminology of group work in secondary school and college is unstandardized and unsatisfactory. Probably the most common term is *extra-curriculum* (or *extra-curricular*) *activities*. Activities so named are characterized by their being voluntary and pursued in addition to the regular classroom requirements, either within the school day or outside of school hours. Such activities are also called *extra-class*, *extra-school*, or, when they approach regular subjects in importance, *co-curricular activities*. On the college level, the organized and unorganized groups are frequently designated as *student activities*, or the *social curriculum*. *Semi-curricular activities* refers to those groups that are in the transition stage from the extra-curriculum into the curriculum.

Student activities have demonstrated their values. Many have been absorbed into the curriculum, vitalizing both its method and its content. As the classroom becomes increasingly socialized and instruction increasingly individualized, the need of *extra-class* activities becomes correspondingly less.

2. GROUP WORK

Group work is planned, shared experiences in which desirable changes take place in the members individually and in the group

as a whole. The leader becomes a group worker when he has learned to facilitate the constructive interaction among members of a group in such a way that the personal development of every member is furthered through group experience, and the group as a whole moves toward the achievement of its goal. According to Dorothea F. Sullivan, the following are distinguishing characteristics of group work: The members plan the program together with the leader serving as consultant; they take individual responsibility for the group enterprise. They engage in creative activities with a minimum of competition; "the atmosphere is friendly, informal, and democratic." If the leader of any class, or homeroom group, or club has achieved this, he has demonstrated the group-work process.

3. THE GROUP LEADER

The leader is the dynamic center of the group. He is active but not dominating; he may gradually become unnecessary and step aside as the group learns to plan and conduct its own meetings.

In order to realize the personal and the group values of student activities, the leader needs certain personal qualifications as well as proficiency in group-work methods. Any leader in group activities, whether in a position of formal leadership or merely in a position of influence as a member of the group, usually possesses to some degree the following personal characteristics; outstanding leaders possess them in a high degree:

Vision and imagination as related to a clearly perceived goal.

Sensitivity to the needs of his time and place.

Sensitivity to individuals and their potentialities; he wants to understand them and is concerned with their success.

Sincerity and genuineness.

Marked energy—physical, or psychological, or both.

Enthusiasm; he thoroughly enjoys the group and its activities.

Courage.

Outgoing tendencies, not egocentric; yet he has a center of gravity within himself and a need for periods of silence and meditation.

Good sportsmanship; he does his share of the work.

Patience.

A sense of responsibility.

Self-confidence; he has a sense of his own ability and growth and is also aware of his limitations.

Expert knowledge and skills that are needed in the group, or ability to find expert help when it is needed. The leader and the members may learn together; both may gradually become expert.

The truly great leader is not interested in leadership as a means of increasing his own prestige; he is willing to step out of a position if that seems best for the group. He leads in his own best way and does not slavishly imitate others. Moreover, different situations demand different qualities of leadership. Thus there will be a wide variety of personalities represented among effective leaders.

The characteristics just mentioned, however, should be considered in choosing teacher sponsors and student leaders. When a group is discussing who should be nominated for offices, the chairman might profitably spend a few minutes bringing out the personal qualities generally sought in leaders for that type of position.

4. GROUP COUNSELING

Group counseling is a concept that focuses still more directly on the development of each individual in the group. The leader encourages free expression, provides situations in which the members discover for themselves their abilities and needs, gives interpretation or information when it is needed, raises questions that lead individuals to explore new possibilities. The selection of members for a group is important for its success. They should be similar in age and in needs; yet they should have different backgrounds of experience that they can share helpfully with one another. They should not be such close friends that they cannot take an impersonal attitude toward one another's problems of vocational choice, family relations, and the like, for from time to time the members must be able to assume the role of counselor to one another.

For example, at the beginning of an experiment in group vocational guidance, the boys were already being counseled individually. After hearing the group described, they decided whether they would join. All of them wanted to see what other boys were thinking. At the first session the members were introduced. The leader began by saying, "Suppose we bring one another up to date about why we came here." Each explained his problem as one of educational or vocational guidance. One boy had just "quit school." He said he could not concentrate and that there had been a "blow-up" between his father and him. The leader realized that this boy's real difficulty was not choice of vocation but his family relationships.

In the following meetings the discussion constantly veered toward their main problem—that of family and school relationships—rather than to narrow problems of educational and vocational choices. The leader, in this group counseling situation, recognized and followed

up clues that they gave him. Instead of merely trying to find a vocational field to fit the individual, he was alert to the need for occasional change in personality to fit a job, using the boy's vocational interest as a motive for changing himself.

Group counseling has several advantages. The individual gets the support of his peers and their frank interpretation of his behavior and attitudes. "You want to get something for nothing," one boy remarked good-naturedly to another. By hearing others discuss their problems, the individual extends his horizon of experience. Sometimes a generalization made in the group is accepted by the person whom it fits. Realization of these values, however, depends on whether the leader can find suitable students with somewhat similar problems to put into a group, and whether counseling and testing have equipped the members to discuss their problems intelligently.

5. GROUP THERAPY¹

Group therapy is treatment for emotionally sick persons. Its aim is to heal. Group therapy is ego building; it tries to reconstruct the inner structure of personality. It is oriented to psychiatry, somewhat as group work is oriented to education.

The leader is non-authoritarian; he does not pass judgment; he is completely accepting. He does not initiate activity, but remains neutral except when the safety of group members is involved. He never censures an individual or says, "You shouldn't do that." He may indicate that the behavior of the individual is not acceptable, but that the individual is. He is careful not to ally himself with parents or other persons who have been beating the individual down. Obviously the leader must know the members exceedingly well, so he will understand exactly what any remark or action means to them. Only thus can he avoid intensifying already existent conflicts.

The group is the instrument of treatment. Therefore the selection of members who will balance one another is of first importance. For example, over-aggressive children are put into a group in which there is already a predominant stability in this regard. This careful selection of members—not more than eight in number—makes possible the beneficial interaction of such a group.

The period is likely to be a succession of conflict, tension, relief of tension, equilibrium. When equilibrium is established after con-

¹ For the ideas in this section the author is indebted to Dr. Charles McCormick who for several years has conducted group therapy work under the direction of Dr. S. R. Slavson.

flict, therapy occurs. The steps in this process are somewhat as follows:

1. A member enters the group tentatively.
2. He gradually brings to the surface basic internal conflicts, expressing them in action more frequently than in words.
3. He gains a release for his hostility and tensions through other members' reactions to him. His self-confidence increases as he learns that he can express without fear the very impulse that, in other situations, has brought retaliation upon him.
4. He acquires insight into why he acts as he does; the members, not the therapist, do the interpreting.
5. He tests his new insights in the group.
6. He tests himself in other situations—home, school, play.
7. He gradually begins to realize his more acceptable self.

Thus group therapy prepares the individual to participate in group work. After he is cured, he can be transferred to a normal group, i.e., from group therapy to group work.

Family, school, social agency, and psychiatrist should work together on such cases. A club sponsor in school occasionally has in his group a boy or girl who is too emotionally disturbed to profit by group work. For such an individual psychotherapy or group therapy is indicated. After the troubled individual has gained new insights and a more hopeful view of himself, he may need to join a normal group in which he can test his new social techniques. If he has to do this successfully, he should have a leader who understands the situation and has been given suggestions as to how he can best meet this individual's needs. Although the teacher would never engage in group therapy, which is a highly technical process, he should be intelligent about it and ready to co-operate with the group therapist if opportunity offers.

Some features of group therapy may be applied in group work. School and college groups might well be more frequently formed with reference to individuals' need instead of merely by chance or on the basis of the students' expressed interests. If this were done, the group would become a still more effective instrument in the total program of individual development and guidance.

6. GROUP WORK AND COUNSELING

In colleges and secondary schools there is a close relation between group work and counseling. Group aspects of personnel work are enmeshed with individual aspects. Personal problems that must be

treated individually are frequently discovered in group activities. The counselor may sometimes establish a good relationship with individuals, who are resistant to counseling, by participating with them in student activities. On the other hand, case studies often suggest the individual's need for certain kinds of group experiences. Thus the group worker not only meets the needs of a larger number of persons at a given time but also meets needs for social participation that counseling cannot meet.

Moreover, the success of group work depends to a considerable extent on work with individuals outside the time of meeting. Conferences with chairmen are necessary to help them conduct meetings more effectively. Conferences with individuals are necessary to help them get the most benefit from the group experience and to contribute to the growth of other members. It frequently happens that a member who was having a detrimental influence in the group, changes his behavior after the leader has taken time to learn more about his interests, family background, and his needs for recognition, affection, adventure, and security.

More specifically, the leader of a group co-operates with the counselor by

1. referring to the counselor individuals in his group who need counseling or psychotherapy and supplying important diagnostic clues.
2. forming special small groups to meet the needs of individuals.
3. carrying out the counselor's suggestions for adjustments within an organized group.
4. conferring with counselor and other guidance workers about individual cases.

The counselor assists the group worker by

1. observing members as they participate in group activities, and noting those who are in need of individual help.
2. increasing the group worker's sensitivity to individuals and his understanding of their behavior.
3. serving as a consultant who will work with individual members.
4. calling case conferences in which the guidance staff, including the group workers, pool and interpret information about an individual case and make recommendations for adjustments.
5. preparing the individual for referral to other workers or agencies.
6. making referrals and acting as a liaison person between the

group worker and other guidance resources in the school and community.²

The relation between counseling and group work is best studied by keeping records of the leader's behavior and of the behavior of individual members in the group situation. Meyering (400, 1937) made such a study of behavior problems emerging in a summer camp. The data consisted of daily records of observations made by counselors during an eight-week camping period. Similar investigations might well be made in other groups.

If counseling and group work are divorced in the student personnel program, many of the reciprocal values of these two major phases of personnel work will be lost. Work with individuals should not be separated from work with groups, as it is today in many high schools and colleges; one phase should gear into the other.

B. THE DYNAMICS OF GROUP WORK

By dynamics of group work is meant the process by which changes are made in the group as a whole and in individuals in the group as a result of the group experience. A study of the dynamics of a group involves records of the behavior of the leader and of the members, experimental study of the effect of changing one element in a controlled situation, and measurement of the effectiveness of different group techniques.

1. CHANGES IN THE PATTERNS OF GROUPS

The dynamic patterns of groups are as significant a subject for study as personality patterns of individuals. Persons tend to form a group about some focus of interest. The group is then welded together, more or less, by a leader, who serves as a personalization of the need or idea around which the group forms. In some instances the dynamics of the group emanate from the leader; in others, from the commonly felt need, goal or purpose. Kardiner (310, 1939) has studied the "basic personality structure" of primitive groups. Price (463, 1941) has shown how the entire student-activity program in an institution has been molded by dynamic leaders.

By studying the characteristics of different groups with reference to the observed atmosphere in the group; the action of the leader; the direction, intensity, and nature of the interaction among members; the achievements of the group and of individual members,

² An entire issue of *The Group*, VIII (November, 1945), 1-13, is devoted to the relation between group work and case work.

much may be learned about the process by which groups are modified. The investigator can obtain answers to such questions as these: How are the characteristics of a group changed as its membership changes? How are group aims, interests, and purposes affected by members who belong to other groups? How may highly individualistic groups be induced to work for the welfare of others outside their own group? How may a better adjustment of the *group to society* be effected?

Groups may be detrimental to society if they recruit as members persons who have similar undesirable idiosyncrasies, views, or tendencies. If the "minority be sufficiently numerous and coherent, it can provide a rationalization and moral backing for anomalies that would otherwise turn the individual into a pariah" (366:50, 1939).

A mere beginning has been made in studying conditions that tend to facilitate or inhibit social co-operation between groups. One method is to describe a realistic social situation and to ask persons to predict the probable outcome of attempts to get agreement between the groups involved (28, 1938; 90, 1939). In a complex situation judgments vary widely. Some persons, directing their attention to one set of conditions, will arrive at one conclusion; others may derive the same conclusion from a different set of factors. Still others, focusing their attention on other factors, may reach the opposite conclusion. This kind of theoretical analysis of accurately described groups helps to identify psychological factors that may hinder or promote social co-operation.

Smith (535, 1941) applied the Bartlett (28, 1938) method of study to campus groups. She first wrote accounts of some typical campus conflicts. One of these she described as follows:

On the campus at M—— University the Independents (students who are not members of Greek-letter organizations) are in opposition to the Organized group (members of fraternities and sororities). Since fraternity and sorority membership is limited and is invitational, the members have tended to form a clique and an elite group. To the Independent group, the Greek-letter members seem to have more money and to be primarily interested in social life and campus activities rather than good scholarship and friendliness.

In recent years fraternities have controlled campus politics. They have held major offices and have won beauty and popularity contests. The Independents, in an effort to obtain status and combat the control held by the fraternities, have recently established an Independent Students Organization. They are striving to attain a social and activity status and hope to control campus offices and honors rather than be controlled by the Greek-letter group.

The fraternities are fighting this competition. With these two factions in bitter opposition, any type of campus election is one long struggle between the two groups. Studies are neglected while both camps lobby outside election headquarters in an effort to draw more votes to the "best" side! Last week an unprecedented event took place when the Independent candidate for Junior Prom Queen won the election by seven votes over the Greek-letter candidate. As a result, it is greatly feared that the Greek-letter group, whose attendance is necessary in order to cover expenses for the prom, will decide to walk out and not support the event.

Even in student council meetings the Independent members oppose any measure presented by the fraternity group, and vice versa. Throughout all these conflicts the emphasis is placed on raising the prestige of the individual faction rather than on which policy or decision is best for the entire student body (535, 1941).

This and five other descriptions of conflict on the campus were then presented to several groups of college students who were asked (1) to list the psychological factors which seemed to be preventing co-operation; (2) to state whether it was possible for the desired co-operation to be brought about and maintained, and to give reasons for their answer; and (3) to suggest definite ways in which they thought co-operation could be brought about. Although the psychological factors mentioned varied somewhat with the situation, several recurred frequently: immature and autocratic attitudes, the tendency to act emotionally rather than rationally, lack of consideration for others, desire for power, jealousy, rivalry, and lack of understanding of the factors in the situation. A variety of methods for bringing about co-operation were suggested. But one method was recommended in each of the six situations, namely, joint discussion and deliberation with all parties concerned. In such a meeting the facts could be considered, the underlying reasons for the lack of co-operation explained, mutual understanding developed, students given a voice in decisions, and common projects and purposes evolved.

2. CHANGES IN INDIVIDUAL MEMBERS OF THE GROUP

Even more important than the sociological or "group-centered" data are the psychological or "individual-centered" data. Through the analysis of these data investigators have gained insight into the effect of group leadership, organization, and procedures on individuals. It is through contacts with other persons that man has developed patterns of social behavior. He has become gregarious by experiences. He achieves individuality through social contacts.

GROUP ACTIVITIES

His social responses have become such an intrinsic part of his personality that it is impossible to describe the individual without recognizing social influences (321, 1940). By changing conditions under which students live, educators may hope to make desirable changes in their character and personality.

Beginning with his first year of life, the child builds a self through social contacts. His earliest social desires arise out of individual needs for food, comfort, change, rest, response, and security in situations for which he feels unprepared. His impulsive, biologically natural behavior is modified into social patterns required by the culture in which he finds himself. He is required to meet his parents' interpretation of social codes and to conform to their "culture," "mores," "society," and "folkways." Through such "interaction of original nature and group patterns" and in response to expectation and demands of the culture surrounding him, his personality and social nature develop.

Each generation must be civilized anew. Through association with others, the individual gradually relinquishes the overt egocentricity of early childhood. His emphasis changes from "I" and "mine" to "we" and "ours." Through sharing in the struggles and successes of the group, the individual moves beyond his narrow egocentric circle. The success of the group gives him personal satisfaction.

Evidently the group is an object which absorbs some of the subject's Narcism. . . . The organization is for the "good member" something "higher" than himself. . . . Furthermore it provides a channel for his energies. He works for the advancement of the group, acts as its advocate, is elated and feels enlarged when it succeeds, is depressed and feels diminished when it fails (416:719, 1938).

Thus, "Sociocentrism" replaces Narcism, and the center of his universe gradually shifts from "himself as an individual" to "himself as a member of a group."

During preadolescence and adolescence groups form in response to the needs of individuals for status, security, friends, adventure, and other experiences not obtained through solitary pursuits. The adolescent boy and girl feel the need to test their physical, mental, and social abilities. Through opportunities to do so, they revise their estimates of themselves. Moreover, these experiences in socialization leave a residue of feeling tone toward life, and especially toward somewhat similar new situations. Accordingly, the adolescent period, outstanding for its emotional disproportions, is a

time when group activities are most necessary. Case studies suggest that experiences in this period have an important influence on behavior. For example, if an adolescent finds that he must dominate the group in order to be happy, he may persist in this behavior pattern and become an equally obnoxious adult, using the same type of behavior, but with more sophistication. If he finds satisfaction in co-operative group enterprises, he is likely to persist in that pattern.

Developmental aspects of adolescent activities were studied by James and Moore (287, 1940) by means of diary records of out-of-school activities obtained from 535 boys and girls of ages twelve to twenty-one. Several of the changes noted were (1) an increase in leisure time with age, especially in amount of time spent in dancing and talking; (2) an abrupt change from childish forms of play to play with members of the same sex when they joined the group of workers; (3) an increase in heterosexual leisure activities after the age of sixteen, whereas before that age they had been engaged to a much greater extent in such individual activities as reading and listening to the radio and in groups of like sex.

Group work aims to modify the personality of the individual by changing the environment to meet his needs. Psychiatrists recognize that it

may be easier to alter the stresses about people than to build up the kingdom of God within them regardless of the stresses about them. . . . The very psychiatric venture by which the change or cure is brought about itself represent an alteration in the patient's milieu. . . . The analytic experience is itself the setting up of a new environmental situation in which there is a reciprocal flow of interest and influence. . . . The new contact has itself set up an entirely new environment for the child (455:29-30, 1937).

To an even greater extent participation in a group represents a new environment for the individual. If, for example, a student is put into a non-competitive group engaged in an enterprise to which he can contribute through some developed skill, he is relieved of the pressure of competition, and experiences the tonic effect of success.

Therapy through the group is not simple, because individuals select from the same situation different elements to which they respond. For one individual some objects in the environment are functionally alive; for another individual the same objects are functionally dead. Any individual's behavior, therefore, takes place in what Koffka has called his "behavioral environment." How far a student's environment as perceived is identical with the personnel work-

er's, and in what characteristic respects it differs, are questions of primary importance. Ordinary observation shows that some persons tend to respond in a hesitating, indecisive way to a variety of stimuli; others meet situations, in general, with vigor and decisiveness. For this reason undifferentiated prescription of certain activities—a sort of patent-medicine kind of counseling—cannot be effective. If the personnel worker recognizes differences in the influence of a group on individuals, he will first of all study the student and his needs and, in the light of the knowledge obtained, help him to participate in the group that offers him the best chance to grow.

Some significant research on this aspect of the dynamics of group work has already been done. This trend toward the study of the group-work *process* represents a desirable shift from descriptive studies to "action research" on groups—the "study of experimentally created changes." Tuttle (589, 1936) attempted to discover the procedures, agencies, and social and recreational experiences in four colleges, which appeared to contribute most to the cultivation of wholesome social motives. Lewin and his associates (342, 1939) have made, and are making at present, significant contributions to the dynamics of group work.³ They have studied the influence of the leader's behavior and other conditions within the group on the responses of the members; the effect of frustration on the friendliness, co-operative behavior, and aggressive behavior of children; the superiority, in changing food habits of college students and adults, of group decision over lectures, requests for co-operation, and discussion without decisions; and the effectiveness of certain methods of "team decision" in increasing production in industry.

Many teachers and principals are skeptical about the practicability of democracy in the classroom or club. This fear of democratic procedures most often arises from a misconception of the nature of democratic leadership or its confusion with *laissez-faire*.

In many respects autocracy and democracy are similar; they both set standards. A lowering of the standards that are suitable to a group means not a shift from autocracy to democracy, but rather a departure from either of these to *laissez-faire*. Both require leadership. They both involve discipline and organization. The difference is in the type of motivation. In a democratic group the members set the goals and work toward them of their own

³For the most recent references in this field (43 in number) see the chapter on "Guidance Through Groups" in the *Review of Educational Research*, XV (April, 1945), 164-172.

volition; whereas in an autocratic group the goals are imposed upon the members and they work toward them because they are told to.

In most groups, the democratic way has to be learned. The members gradually become able to take responsibility for group activities. They grow in sensitivity and considerateness toward others as they see the leader demonstrating these qualities and as they themselves get satisfaction from this kind of behavior.

In changing from autocratic to democratic leadership, the teacher and the club sponsor are often confronted with skepticism, lack of co-operation, or even opposition on the part of the administrator who interprets initiative and sociability as disorder and poor discipline. Under such conditions the wise teacher recognizes the limitations under which he and his class are required to work. As soon as possible, however, he will demonstrate the kind of results in which the administrator is interested—better attendance, fewer serious disciplinary problems, and a good quality of academic achievement. These kinds of achievement, as well as increased social sensitivity and competence, should be a by-product of successful group work.

3. INFLUENCE OF THE INDIVIDUAL ON THE GROUP

Although individuals are obviously influenced by the groups to which they belong, they may become "creators of culture (392, 1941). If the personality patterns of enough individuals are changed by group experiences, society will assume new forms.

On the other hand, social disorganization may be an extension of individual disorganization, unconsciously motivated and often rooted in unfortunate childhood experiences (43, 1937). When a fairly large number of persons show a certain difficulty or misbehavior, it becomes evident as a social problem (203:463, 1925). Looked at from another angle, social problems seem to arise from "organizational mores" that conflict with humanitarian attitudes. Unless these organizational mores are changed, the group worker continues

to treat symptoms without removing their causes. . . . The difficulty which he faces is that the human misery which he deplors is a necessary part of a social order which seems to him good. . . . The pacifist does not really want peace at its necessary price; he wants peace with the continuation of things in the present order which necessitate war. He wants a miracle (608:929, 1936).

It is important for the group worker to study both the personal

and organizational bases of certain school and college social problems.

C. NEGATIVE GROUP INFLUENCES

There is no inevitable magic in group work. In fact, a group may exert a negative instead of a beneficial influence on individual members. Democracy has its dangers. Its very freedom may permit unprincipled or prejudiced persons to sway, dominate, or exploit others. Accordingly, the potential dangers and difficulties in group work should be recognized and squarely faced.

It is the hope of personnel workers, of course, that the group process will stimulate individuals to think new thoughts, to evolve original plans, and to work more efficiently. Research regarding the influence of the group on the individual, although conflicting, does not permit an uncritical, entirely optimistic advocacy of "group thinking" under all circumstances. In the presence of a group the best thinking of certain individuals may be inhibited. Experiments (450, 1937) have shown that the student's speed of work was best while being observed and while competing in a group situation, but his accuracy was higher when working alone and not in competition. Quantity has been increased at the expense of quality under the influence of the group. Independence of judgment likewise may be discouraged in a group. Group bias may prevail, and aggressive individuals dominate the more thoughtful but less dynamic members. The group situation may seriously interfere with the performance of individuals having such handicaps as stuttering. Those of low intelligence seem to be more favorably influenced by the group than those of high intelligence. It would be interesting to subject the individual responses in these experiments to further analysis in order to ascertain how frequently the averages reported conceal the opposite tendencies on the part of certain individuals and what factors were associated with marked deviations from the average.

Group experience of certain kinds may decrease self-confidence. An individual who is rejected by a group may attribute his rejection to his inferiority rather than to the failure of the group to develop tolerance. Especially difficult to work with is the boy or girl who shows consistent inability to be accepted by his classmates. Unless the relationships are very carefully controlled, an individual of this kind is not likely to be helped by group experience (101, 1937). By helping him to acquire certain skills needed in the group and by putting him in contact with two or three of the most congenial students engaged in some project to which he can

contribute, the adult may improve the student's social adjustment. Frequently, however, a student leader can do more along this line than an adult leader. Success depends upon having developed a personnel point of view on the part of students to one another. Unless this has been accomplished, discipline by the group may be merciless, cruel, and inimical to the best development of individuals whose eccentricity is ridiculed or whose docility or altruism is exploited.

Excessive social activity may likewise be harmful to the individual. In this extraverted world some individuals need protection from too many social contacts. Even those who have a generous supply of psychological energy require for their best development a favorable balance between solitude and the stimulus that comes from groups.

The greater part of a person's life is private and subjective; much of it is related directly to Nature and much is either casually or informally social or involves only one other person. And this includes the "joiners." . . . Moreover, many social memberships are half-hearted, perfunctory or insincere and others merely inherited affiliations. . . . Even in the case of loyal and representative members of an organization one does not know whether they were like the others before they joined or became so afterward. An institution may strengthen some personal tendencies and weaken others. . . . An institution means one thing to one man and something else to another (416:721-22, 1938).

More widely recognized as a harmful influence is the facilitation of crime through groups. Almost three-fourths of the offenses committed by juvenile delinquents, actually known to the juvenile court authorities, involve one or more accomplices. When the boys' loyalty to their group, and the influence of companions on lone offenders are considered, the proportion of boys who commit offenses because of association with others of anti-social tendencies is larger than the percentages reported indicate (522, 1939).

The effects of associating with delinquent groups are of several kinds. First the group makes possible crimes that could not be committed single-handed. Second the delinquent group serves as a school for crime in which the novitiates are instructed, encouraged, and otherwise subjected to the influence of experienced criminals. Healey and Bronner (259, 1926) reported that questionable companionship could fairly be regarded as a causative factor in the delinquency of 62 per cent of the three thousand cases studied. If not a "cause" of crime, undesirable group associations are at least important contributing factors which exert a demoralizing influ-

ence on its members "through the dissemination of criminal technique, and the propagation through mutual excitation, of interests and attitudes that make crime easier (less inhibited) and more attractive (582:381-83, 1936). At first the gang satisfied certain basic needs of its members. In their minds crime is not clearly distinguished from play. Attitudes toward crime are thus built imperceptibly through association, especially in deteriorated areas. In these gangs stealing junk and making raids on stores or trucks constitute a part of the accepted play life of the group. As one delinquent said, "When I was a little kid I never looked at stealing as being wrong. It was just fun. All the kids did it. It was just fun, like playing" (522:24, 1939). The gang satisfies the needs of boys for adventure, for "belongingness," for approval and prestige. Shaw states that

The various forms of delinquency in which boys engage in the delinquency areas of the city are adjustments or adaptations to the practices and norms of the group to which these boys belong. Within the limits of their social world they are well adjusted and normal human beings. Their delinquencies are as purposive to them, as natural, and as vital in serving their immediate personal and social needs as are the conventional forms of conduct among children in more privileged neighborhoods (522:25-26, 1939).

Conformity to the rules of the gang are rewarded, infractions punished. The fascination of this life frequently alienates the individual member from the organized approved groups in school, church, and community agencies.

Less obvious in their unfortunate effects but more universal are the conflicts caused by competing loyalties to groups. Within the modern community are many groups which make conflicting demands upon the individual. In some primitive tribes (393, 1937) and peasant communities, on the other hand, one finds a fixed culture without conflicting mores. There the people seem happy and placid. They are the most completely integrated persons one could find—such persons as one seldom meets today in a world where the majority of people have to belong to conflicting groups, and where several kinds of behavior in turn are forced upon each individual. If the member of one group expresses the new attitudes and insights he has gained in another group he may, by doing so, lose status. Thus the prejudices and inflexibility of the group and its response to the individual, as well as the individual's prestige and attitude toward the group, determine his adjustment in a given situation.

As a result of conflicting demands, such questions as the following arise: Should an individual's "loyalty to the group" be anything more than loyalty to each of its members? Will not stressing the group create an abstraction in the mind of the student? Sometimes the conflicts arising from narrow group loyalties may be resolved by directing students' attention toward some goal or purpose outside themselves and outside the group.

The successful personnel worker cannot ignore the culture in which he lives; his task is to live with these conflicting, changing moralities and beliefs, not to justify them. He cannot make them right or wrong. But he must be familiar not only with the beliefs and convictions of his students but also with the beliefs and convictions of the groups by whom their actions will be approved or condemned. Supplied with such knowledge, he can help each student weigh the penalties of conformity against the penalties of nonconformity. He must weigh the dangers to students' development involved in reinforcing mores that are causing conflict against the dangers of precipitating the disapproval of many persons whom the long-established mores still influence profoundly. For example, one high school girl regretted that she had lost her boy friend because she has refused to "pet." Recognizing the penalties attached to adherence to established mores, a committee of college girls, discussing the problem of heterosexual relations, emerged with the recommendation, "Practice moderation in petting, not total abstinence." In order to counsel with wisdom, the personnel worker needs to know both the individuals whom he is counseling and the groups with which they are affiliated.

D. VALUES IN GROUP ACTIVITIES

One reason why the quality of experience in many school clubs and other student groups is poor is that many sponsors are not aware of the values of these activities. Too often, the sponsor's attention is focused on producing a finished dramatic performance, an outstanding school paper, or a winning team, instead of on the lines of positive attraction or repulsion being formed among members and the feelings of self-confidence and personal worth—or the opposite—being built in each participant. No one would discount the desirability of an end result that gives satisfaction to all concerned. However, if achievement of this kind is the only end the sponsor has in view, the far more important outcome of personal development is likely to be lost. Moreover, the students will lose a

great deal of happiness, inherent in their striving, if their attention is focused too intently on the goal. For these reasons, it is necessary, first of all, for the sponsor to see clearly the contribution which student activities can and should make to the personal development of every participant.

Coyle (128, 1937) lists three objectives of group life in college:

1. A school in human relationships.
2. Training in community living and participation.
3. Developing interests, knowledge, and skills.

In 1926 Koos presented a detailed list of civic-social-moral values of extra-curriculum activities (323, 1926). Preparation for life in all its many aspects is a social process, and of necessity involves guided experiences in groups. "We learn that we live." Every group is an experiment in personality development and social living.

I. DEVELOPMENTAL VALUES

Group activities have a contribution to make to students' best development—to the satisfaction of their basic needs; to their social, emotional, and aesthetic development; to the building of values, attitudes, and social norms; to their vocational adjustments, and to the acquisition of knowledge and skills.

a. Satisfaction of basic needs.—These needs have been variously classified (242, 1927; 330, 1940; 524, 1938). Among them are "the need for a sense of personal worth, a need to contribute to the welfare and pleasure of others" (330:247, 1940): a need for security and affection. When group work is effective it gives members a sense of accomplishment, self-confidence, and personal worth; it brings out the best in each participant. Much of the richness of an individual's personality derives from his experiences in groups.

One of the deepest human needs is to be socially useful. The veteran, who has experienced a strong sense of solidarity with his comrades, is in special need of belonging to groups in which he will have that same feeling of working, shoulder to shoulder, for the accomplishment of some essential purpose. Thus he becomes a significant part of a larger whole.

Another of our deepest needs is for security, especially security in the affection of others. Each wants others to like him; he wants to feel that he "belongs," that his family, his school group, his fellow workers, really want him as a member of their groups. As

part of the group, he learns to gain personal satisfaction from the success of his group. Through acquiring "a sense of belonging," a student's zest for living may be restored and his personality expanded. Any satisfying personal relationship tends to increase a person's sense of security; "the more competitive the environment, the more important becomes his desire for security" (524:15, 1938).

The need for approval and recognition is also strong. In many instances, student activities gives boys and girls opportunities to use abilities never evoked by the academic curriculum. For these students the pleasure in school and college life resides mainly in extra-class activities. In these, they feel successful and happy.

b. Social and emotional development.—Social development is a natural outcome of well-planned student activities. By this word we do not refer merely to knowledge of social usage or even to social poise and spontaneous conformance to narrow demands of social conventions. A broader definition would be concerned with growth away from self-centeredness; it would include ability to win love and affection from one's fellows, insight into the social needs of oneself and others, and ability to make others feel successful and happy. The socially mature person has learned the give-and-take of living with others in ever-widening circles. Wolfe (636, 1936) described the socially mature person as one who deals up-rightly with his fellow men, enriches his own life through his constructive influence on others, achieves empathy with others, accepts and ennobles his place in the community, feels responsible for the use of his abilities, and possesses a knowledge of foreign culture.

One of the few investigations that aimed to ascertain some of the specific factors related to social success in college was reported by Burks (79, 1938). Twenty-six university students—thirteen men and thirteen women—were nominated for study on the basis of pronounced social success or lack of it. These subjects were rated and tested in various ways. The following differences were found between the two groups:

The Socially Successful

- I. Expressed themselves with humor of a natural unforced sort,
- with consideration for others,
- with warmth of feeling and sympathetic understanding,

The Socially Unsuccessful

- I. Expressed themselves with forced humor and ridicule of others,
- with absorption in self and own welfare to the partial exclusion of interest



with vividness and originality,
 with constructive ideas in incidents that involve unpleasantness or discomfort,
 with frankness, directness, and sincerity,
 with a sense of obligation and responsibility toward things undertaken,
 with adaptability or a sense of appropriateness.

2. On the Strong Vocational Interest Blank they showed:

A tendency toward tolerance of peculiarities,
 A generosity involving money and energy,
 An inclination to follow occupations that deal with people directly,
 An enjoyment of social contact situations.

3. On the Humn-Wadsworth Questionnaire they showed:

A tendency to ask advice from others,
 A willingness to take the whole blame in a situation in which they were only partly at fault.
 Those talented in making conversation are in high favor with the opposite sex.
 Almost all socially successful indicate some warmth of feeling and sympathetic understanding.

in others,
 with vagueness and lack of originality,
 with a tendency to self-righteous moralizing over a situation,
 with hypocrisy, impertinence,
 with a passive reaction to situations where there is obligation or responsibility,
 with a lack of sense of responsiveness and fitness of things.

2. On the Strong Vocational Interest Blank they showed:

A tendency toward intolerance,
 A lack of generosity,
 An inclination to follow occupations that do not deal with people,
 A dislike of helping others to adjust.

3. On the Humn-Wadsworth Questionnaire they showed:

A lack of interest in people,
 A cynical outlook on making friends,
 A self-centered feeling of failure when others succeed,
 A suspicion entertained concerning people's motives.
 Lack of initiative in meeting members of the opposite sex is a handicap.
 Lack of warm feeling was noted in all but one.

The problem of factors in sociability has also been attacked by using the method of factor analysis on the results of questionnaires. The results of such analyses sound reasonable and sensible, but obvious. Facetiously, the "sociable" person has been found to be

sociable and the "unsociable" person, unsociable and diffident. The true ingredients of sociability may not be revealed by this method insofar as the factors that come out of a factor analysis are the ones that were put into the hopper by the investigator.

The establishment of successful social contacts in college appears to be influenced by:

1. An interest in social contacts and a desire to initiate and maintain them.
2. An environment facilitating social contacts.
3. Specific techniques for establishing them.

Mallay (383, 1936) made a study of the last two factors, using as subjects fifty-six Vassar students, living in two different groups. Both Group A and Group B lived in geographically compact dormitory groups, but Group A engaged in co-operative housekeeping. In increase in acquaintanceship, both quantitative and qualitative, and in prolonged social relationships Group A was superior to Group B. Apparently mere propinquity, "although affording an opportunity to develop social contacts, did not stimulate as many social contacts as did the environmental factor of . . . co-operative activity."

Williamson and Darley (632, 1937; 633, 1937) experimented with the measurement of social attitudes of college students. The instrument devised for this purpose consisted of questionnaires designed to measure (1) social preference—extent and type of desired social relationships, ranging, on a horizontal continuum, from the desire to restrict one's social relationships to a very few contacts to an attitude favoring relatively unrestricted social contacts, i.e., interest in people in general; and (2) social reaction—the individual's estimate of his own behavior and feelings in social situations.

This group of investigations aimed to ascertain specific behavior and conditions that entered into the vague terms, *sociability*, *social success*, and *social competency*. Consideration for others, generosity, vivacity, responsibility, spontaneity appeared significantly related to social success on the campus. However, the factors seem relatively independent of one another—the presence of some making up for the lack of others in persons who are moderately successful in personal relations. It seems to be impossible to describe a typical socially successful person. In this, as in every other aspect of human behavior, a wide range of individual differences exists.

In the case of genius there is sometimes the problem of sacrificing scholarship to sociability. Any outstanding achievement de-

mands long concentrated periods of work uninterrupted by social activities. In a number of cases the contribution of a genius has been reduced or completely diverted by making him an administrator or loading him with social responsibilities. In *Time Out of Mind* (191, 1939) Rachael Field portrays this result in the case of the young and gifted composer who is distracted and depressed by his wife's insistence on his participation in social affairs.

There is need, however, for the participation of certain gifted individuals in group activities in order that they may make outstanding contributions in the field of social relations. And yet, to be effective, such participation on the part of the gifted must come from a personal interest and a sense of social responsibility. Therefore, it is incumbent upon education for democracy to develop these sensitivities.

Part of the process of socialization includes proficiency in meeting the narrower demands of social convention. As long as these conventions persist, the individual who lacks the social skills sanctioned by the group will be handicapped. For that reason the social program of the school should provide practice, and, if necessary, instruction in the kind of social affairs that the student will probably have to attend during his school life and later. The expected outcomes of this experience and instruction are increased poise and self-confidence in social situations.

In working toward that objective, the social director must guard against the possible danger of focusing students' attention on the externals of sociability employed for the purpose of impressing and influencing people. Not only does such instruction put stress on sham values but it also tends to extol the self-centeredness which genuine social education seeks to reduce.

Taba (564, 1940) urged a re-examination and re-evaluation of standards rather than uncritical acceptance of them and attempted adjustment to current standards. "The values and manners accepted by the dominating social strata in the community often are held up as models for people in whose lives they have no real function" (564:60, 1940). The tendency has been to help students to adjust by conforming to the present groups. If a student felt inferior because she could not afford the kind of dress and grooming prevailing in the school or college groups, the tendency has been for the adviser to help her achieve better personal appearance through part-time work or courses in home economics. Rarely has the student and the group been encouraged to question the validity of the standard itself and to accept deviations from it as valuable and interesting.

Prescott (460, 1938) justified the making of vivid experiences an integral part of the educative process, on the basis that mild emotions have a tonic effect on physiological processes in general. Many student activities naturally arouse this mild, beneficial type of emotion. The value of fun should not be minimized. It is good for persons of all ages to laugh, to have a good time, to cast dull care aside, at least temporarily. The increased sense of well-being and fitness which a student gains from recreational activity often spreads to other aspects of his life and causes him to put greater effort into his school work. "Wild" parties, on the other hand, arouse strong emotions which demand changes in the body economy of a mobilizing or conserving type. "A continuum of affective experience exists, varying from vague feelings of pleasantness or unpleasantness up to profound experiences which greatly disturb both mental and physical functions" (460:30, 1938).

When tensions have increased and pent-up emotional energy is ready to burst forth, vigorous group activities provide a constructive outlet under the discipline of the group atmosphere. Group activities, while contributing unobtrusively to the best development of individuals, also prevent explosive outbursts of student energy, which appear on some campuses in the form of Hallowe'en type of pranks, or a more blatant "painting the town red." If a student continually has opportunity to make plans and carry them out, his need for aggression is at a minimum. This "safety-valve" feature, however, should not be considered as a major function of student activities; they are more constructive and positive in their purpose than that.

c. Values, attitudes, and social norms.—Through interaction in groups, the members develop values, attitudes, standards, and social norms. They learn what a group expects from each member in the way of action and belief and they feel obligated to "make good." The best way of building standards of social behavior is to give students the experience of engaging in thoroughly enjoyable, wholesome activities. To these standards boys and girls will refer later when they are confronted with a choice of recreational opportunities.

d. Vocational values.—The vocational value derived from participation in group activities has been rather narrowly interpreted in terms of information about occupations and try-out experiences in fields of art, music, journalism, and the like. More important is the facility in human relationships, which may be acquired in groups. "Earning power . . . depends considerably upon making good in relationships as a worker or as employer—upon gaining the loyalty of one's associates" (242:7, 1927). To this vocational preparation

group activities in which students of widely different levels of ability, interests, and socio-economic background work and play together may make a most significant contribution.

e. Aesthetic values.—Many student activities have aesthetic values. They give members opportunities to use mind and body in the creation of beauty, to feel the exultation derived from constructive work, to lose themselves in the steady rhythm of a crew or in the enveloping power of a Bach chorale.

f. Knowledge and skills.—Among the numerous knowledges and skills that may be gained in group activities are those in public speaking, group discussion, use of parliamentary law, ways of integrating different points of view and of winning co-operation. Any group, in which a democratic atmosphere prevails, offers experience in initiating and carrying out plans, in meeting difficulties, in accepting and fulfilling obligations, in completing a task successfully, and in distributing responsibility. In every group members may obtain a better understanding of human nature.

Interest groups offer a wide variety of specialized skills in dramatics, writing, games and sports, bookbinding, photography, and many others, all of which add to the richness of life. Moreover, the possession of certain skills gives the individual satisfaction and security and aids in his social adjustment. It often happens that a shy boy or girl is able to win recognition and friends by having a skill through which he can make a contribution to the group.

The question is frequently asked: What is the effect on scholarship of participation in student activities? A number of investigations give a basis for answering this question. Students active in extra-class groups tend to do well in their academic work. This is partly because the more able students have wide interests, and partly because a certain amount of pleasure in clubs and social affairs seems to release energy for school subjects.

In individual cases in which extra-curricular activities seem to affect scholarship adversely, the following factors may be involved:

1. The total load of activities that an individual student is carrying allows insufficient time for study.
2. The activities are so much more interesting than school work that the student is carried away by them.
3. The rapidly growing adolescent may not have enough energy for both study and extra-curricular activities.
4. The student may be engaged in unsuitable activities.
5. The atmosphere of the school may be unfavorable to study.

The remedy for a slump in scholarship is not to put exclusive

emphasis on the academic requirements or arbitrary limitation on the extra-class activities of students doing unsatisfactory school work. It is rather to work for more skillful counseling and for improvement in the curriculum and in methods of instruction.

Many schools make a certain degree of scholastic proficiency prerequisite for club membership. This requirement is not logical if one accepts the view that extra-curricular activities serve as a stimulus to improved scholarship. In certain cases, however, when an excessive expenditure of time in club activities is interfering with scholarship, curtailment of club responsibility is necessary. Any blanket rule on this matter seems unwise. Each case should be decided in the light of all the available facts regarding the needs and capacities of the individual.

2. ✓ DIAGNOSTIC VALUES

To the leader the group activity offers opportunities for observation and better understanding of an individual. In an informal group those who need counseling stand out. The girl who is unable to make social contacts; the boy whose aggressiveness or egocentrism causes the group to reject him; the shy individual who needs help in developing some special skill or ability—these and many others have needs that may be disclosed in group activities.

The group also offers opportunities for self-appraisal. In social situations the individual becomes aware of his abilities and limitations, as, for example, when he feels the need for better oral expression in order to participate in a group discussion. Positions of leadership foster a student's diplomacy. Defeat in an election may lead to analysis of the reasons why he was not chosen. Being placed in a position of responsibility shows up strengths and weaknesses. His habitual ways of thinking are challenged by new points of view expressed by his peers. Thus, in many ways, through participation in group life, the student is aided in self-discovery and self-realization.

3. ✓ THERAPEUTIC VALUES

Group activities are generally conceded to have some therapeutic values—especially those classified under *milieu* or environmental therapy. Some of these values were described by Young (646, 1939) as outcomes of experience of a summer camp for children having emotional problems: opportunity for the child to work out more satisfactory relationships with other people; for developing new habit patterns; for becoming more self-reliant and independent, more aware of his problems and the contribution of environmental

factors to them; and for revealing to him his special talents and capacities. When a study of the individual indicates that he has problems which the group might be expected to solve, great care must be taken that the leader, the group, and all it involves is suited to the child's needs. The first step is to select the right group. It is a serious mistake, for example, to plunge a shy, retiring person into activities in which he could not hope to succeed. To do so would intensify his withdrawal tendencies to an acute degree. He should not be placed in a group that is competitive or autocratic in atmosphere, or composed of older and more sophisticated members. Rather he should be placed in a small group of congenial, friendly people engaged in a worthy enterprise requiring the knowledge and skill which he possesses. In cases of extreme repression few or no demands are made of the individual, but any move toward participation is encouraged. In state institutions and hospitals and in clinics and camps for maladjusted children the usefulness of group work and group therapy is being increasingly recognized. —

4. VALUES TO THE SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

Although the best development of individuals in itself promotes the welfare of the group, the school and community may gain in other ways from effective group work. That intangible thing called "school spirit" or morale (307, 1914; 140, 1940), policies regarding student life, the solution of school problems, the improvement of the school environment—all may be taken as projects by student councils or other groups. Through discussion, conflicting points of view may be harmonized and solutions found to common problems. Price (463, 1941) showed how improved group life on a campus may develop out of student activities. Whenever groups promote cooperation and responsibility in their members, they have a beneficial effect on the school and community.

Davis (140, 1940) attempted to analyze situations which might demoralize a student and thus constitute factors in poor morale. He considered the most important factors affecting student morale to be the student-instructor relationship, the student-student relationship, social experiences, financial conditions, uncertainty as to vocation, and personal adjustment. He analyzed each of these factors further into behavior of faculty members and students and into specific events that tend to demoralize. A test consisting of thirty-three statements of opinions on college conditions was then administered in five institutions of higher learning, with resulting differentiation among institutions. An item analysis indi-

cated items which were most closely related to a total low-morale and to a total high-morale group. "This preliminary work indicates that in the large universities demoralization takes place between student and instructor. In the smaller co-operative schools, general living conditions, finances, and future vocation were apparently the depressing areas" (140:104, 1940). It would be interesting to study the influence of dissatisfaction in one phase of college life, such as having few dates or being dissatisfied with living conditions, on the student's total adjustment.

E. CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

Group activities in college and secondary school are social laboratories in which students may learn the ways of democracy. In the group-work process, guided by a competent leader, each member grows personally and contributes to the realization of the group goal or purpose. Since individuals have different needs, a variety of activities should be offered. Some students want to progress in the development of their special talents; others need rest and recreation; still others, joy in creative work, fellowship, and co-operation in a common task. Unless the student selects activities to meet his needs, the potential values of group work will not be realized.

There is no inevitable magic in the group-work process. Unless skillfully conducted, it may have detrimental as well as beneficial results. The expert leader will recognize and work toward the positive potential values of student activities.

The chapters that follow bring to the reader the experience of hundreds of persons who have been thoughtfully working in this field. They have made surveys; described programs and procedures; developed in many different kinds of groups; set up experiments; and studied relationships. Their work has been largely concerned with results rather than with the process by which certain results are attained. The next ten years should yield much more knowledge of the dynamics of group work—the structure of groups, the ways in which leaders consciously use groups as instruments for individual development, and the effect of different kinds of group experience on the character and personality of participants.

CHAPTER II

ORGANIZATION AND SUPERVISION OF GROUPS

AFTER the personnel worker has gained a clear idea of the nature and values of group activities, he is confronted with the task of translating his philosophy into effective procedures. In doing so he will encounter many difficulties. In 1926, Koos (324, 1926) recognized many obstacles to the achieving of the potential values of group activities. Among these obstacles are the under- or overparticipation by certain students, anti-social practices, lack of expert supervision, economic considerations, outside interference, too rigid central control, duplicating activities, conflicting schedules, and unsatisfactory facilities.

✓ Johnston (299, 1939) more recently traced the failure of the extra-curriculum activity program to fulfill educators' expectations to certain weaknesses in administration. Among these are:

1. The lack of appreciation on the part of teachers and students of the potential values of group activities.
2. The lack of faith in the ability of students to accept responsibility for planning and executing their plans.
3. The unequal distribution of opportunity for all students to participate.
4. The overemphasis on competitive aspects.
5. The overattention given to promoting the organization itself.
6. The use of school clubs for promoting the propaganda of special-interest groups.
7. The lack of vital relations between student groups and the curriculum.
8. The neglect of evaluation of activities in terms of fundamental objectives.
9. Poor preparation of teachers for their group-work responsibilities.
10. Lack of consideration for the teacher's total load.

In order to prevent duplication and deficiencies in his program, the personnel worker should study the group activities offered in the curriculum and the community. Having ascertained the need for group work in the school, he is met with problems of initiating the

activities, providing well-qualified leaders, regulating student participation, seeing that activities are properly financed, co-ordinating them, and providing adequate supervision and control. It is these problems that will be reviewed in this chapter.

A. CURRICULUM, EXTRA-CURRICULUM, AND COMMUNITY GROUPS

In secondary school and college, group activities may emerge from the curriculum, or exist co-ordinately with it, or be incorporated into it. In the first case the so-called extra-curriculum activities help to motivate the curricular activities to which they are so closely allied. In the second case there is a rather sharp dividing line between the two—the false dichotomy that has long existed between work and play. In the third case the importance of the extra-curriculum activities has been recognized, with the result that they have been “taken in off the door-step and made an integral part of the curriculum.” It would be desirable if the informal activities were more completely integrated with the school program, and were available to all students who needed them for their best development.

Group activities have been criticized for usurping energies which the students should devote to scholastic achievement. To those who hold this point of view, the extra-curriculum represents “a super-structure full of distractions.” Group workers would agree that the extra-curriculum should never so absorb the student’s time that he neglects important scholastic work, rest, or contemplation. Nor should the informal activities constitute an avenue of escape for students who seek to avoid facing their problems by plunging feverishly into group life.

In 307 schools, belonging to the North Central Association, Clement (107, 1939) noted some evidence of common aims of curriculum and extra-curriculum and a tendency toward scheduling informal student activities during school hours. In the high school to a greater extent than in the college, student activities, formerly extra-curriculum, have been incorporated into the curriculum.

The relation of extra-curriculum activities to the curriculum was studied more comprehensively by Jones (305, 1935). He first defined an extra-curriculum activity as one which is not listed on the regular schedule, for which no credit leading to graduation is given, and for which there is no prescribed course of study. His conclusions are based on replies from 269, or 53.5 per cent of the high schools to which his questionnaire was sent.

GROUP ACTIVITIES

Trends in the various activities appear to be as follows:

<i>Activity</i>	<i>Introduction</i>	<i>Present Status</i>	<i>Predicted Future Status</i>
The newspaper	Began as curriculum activity about 1870	A curriculum activity in approximately one half the schools	Increased in number of schools putting journalism in the curriculum
The magazine	First published in 1885	An activity reported in only one third of the schools	Continue as an extra-curriculum activity
Yearbook	First published in 1890	Now produced in 85 per cent of schools, predominant in extra-curricular activities	Trend toward curricular status
Handbook	First published in 1910	Published in about one half of the schools	Primarily an extra-curriculum activity
Music activities	Began as curricular offerings about the year 1885	Offered in nine tenths of the schools; in two fifths of schools as curricular offerings	Trend toward making them regular curricular offerings, supplemented by some on extra-curricular basis
Athletic activities	Between the years 1875-79 football, track, and baseball introduced. These, plus basketball, well established by 1900. Golf, tennis, swimming, wrestling, and hockey introduced since 1920	Offered as extra-curriculum in from three fourths to nine tenths of the schools, according to sport	Trend toward continuance of their extra-curriculum status
Dramatics	First introduced in 1880	Training now provided in 93 per cent of the schools; 45 per cent now offer dramatics as a regular subject	Movement toward including dramatics in the curriculum
Debating	One of the oldest activities. Introduced into regular English offerings by 13 per cent of the schools	Reported in 85 per cent of the schools; 44 per cent now offer regular classes in debating	Movement toward regular curriculum
Student Councils	Developed during the years 1901 and 1902	Student participation in school control in 79 per cent of schools	Status will probably continue to be extra-curriculum
Assembly	Introduced with the beginning of high school days	An integral part of the life of virtually all schools	Will probably continue to be extra-curriculum although many programs originate in curricular activities

<i>Activity</i>	<i>Introduction</i>	<i>Present Status</i>	<i>Predicted Future Status</i>
Clubs	Established about twenty years ago	All schools make some provision for clubs	No definite trend indicated
Homeroom	First reported in 1873 and 1879	Seventy-three per cent of the schools include the homeroom in their programs	No trend to give graduation credit for homeroom work

The schools which included the newspaper, the music activities, most of the athletic and dramatic activities as a definite part of the regular curriculum reached significantly larger proportions of students than did the schools which treated these activities as extra-curriculum.

Jones recommended that certain activities, such as the student council, the assembly, clubs, and the homerooms continue to be extra-curriculum, not only because they do not lend themselves to prescriptive courses of study and formal organization, but also because "the adolescent needs some areas which appeal to his desire for venturesome experience." The curriculum and the extra-curriculum should be complementary. Group life will never reach its maximum development while vital participation is relegated to leisure pursuits only.

Community organizations and opportunities for recreation must also be brought into the picture. For the closer the recreational activities of the school are tied up with the recreational life of the community, the more certain is the functioning of the social education in the school. All the organized and unorganized groups in the community are part of the total group activities program.

Youth organizations in the United States are numerous, diverse, and unco-ordinated. According to Chambers (96, 1938), there are about twenty associations which claim a membership of 100,000 or more young persons. The three largest are the American Junior Red Cross, the International Society of Christian Endeavor, and the American Youth Congress. Next in order of size and more continuous and active in their group work are the Four-H Clubs, the Young Men's Christian Association, and the Boy Scouts of America. Likewise influential are various church groups of young people, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Girl Scouts, the Camp Fire Girls, the Boys Clubs of America, the Future Farmers of America, and the National Student Federation. The membership of these organizations covers a range of 117,000 to 8,351,000 members.

A multiplicity of organizations reach into rural fields (319, 1939) also. Among these organizations are the Grange, the Farmers' Union

Juniors, the Farm Bureau, the Junior Chamber of Commerce, Women's Clubs, Y.W.C.A., Y.M.C.A., and young people's church organizations. An increase of interest in young people among adult service clubs was noted.

Community co-operation may be enlisted in many of the student activities. In fact, parents, churches, and social agencies have been more interested in the problem of the worthy use of leisure than the schools. Information about the co-ordinating council which offers opportunity for the school to co-operate with the community in the youth conservation program was summarized by Riggs (488, 1940). There were, in twenty-six states, at the time of the study over three hundred councils called by different names, but all concerned with social planning for the general welfare. Schools and colleges should prepare students for interested and efficient participation in such community services.

All kinds of school and community groups should be part of a total plan by means of which the lives of students are enriched. Extra-curriculum activities justify their existence only if they supply vital experiences which are not available through the curriculum or through the student's everyday life.

B. INITIATING STUDENT ACTIVITIES

✓ Group activities should be the outgrowth of students' creative interests; they should not be predetermined by adults. The program must begin where students, faculty, and community are and be built on existing sources of vitality and strength. Ideally, the personnel worker should wait for a demand on the part of students. Sometimes the demand may be stimulated by such a question as, "Why do we not have a music appreciation hour?" As soon as students' interest is aroused, they should receive whatever help they need in developing their plans successfully. The activity should be chartered by a central body selected by the students. Only such activities should be chartered as fulfill some worthy purpose and do not duplicate existing organizations.

A study (233, 1939) of the accredited higher institutions in the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (282 in number) made during the year 1937-38 supplies excellent information on the control and other phases of student activities. In more than 95 per cent of the institutions, official recognition by the administration is required for all existing student activities and official approval is required for the establishment of new student

activities. Approval of new activities is most frequently denied on the grounds that

the objectives of the proposed activity or organization are definitely in conflict with those of the institution. This reason is stated in several other ways: that the organization or activity would require too much of the students' time; that it would have no intellectual or academic value; that it would involve money-making schemes to benefit individual students; that it would involve persons outside the student group; or merely that its objectives would conflict with those of the institution. Another reason stated with almost equal frequency is the duplication between proposed organizations and activities and those already established. A third reason . . . is that the proposed activity has no worthwhile purpose and fulfills no specific need. Other reasons regarded sufficiently important to deny approval to a proposed student activity or organization are that the activity is undemocratic, that it has inadequate sponsorship, or that it involves financial expenditures too great for either the students involved or for the institution itself (233:201, 1939).

These reasons, for the most part, seem to have at heart the reputation of the institution rather than the best development of the student. The question of students' time is an individual one, and should be subsidiary to the students' need for the activity. Intellectual or academic value has been overemphasized in some institutions, and student activities have been created to supply the lack of all-round development. In many cases there should be closer contact between the institution and the community. "Undemocratic" may be used as a blanket term which also may have little or no relation to the students' best development.

On the Michigan State campus (391, 1936) new vitality was injected into the college by a club initiated by students who were interested in creative, varied, democratic, and inexpensive social activities. Dancing, for example, was made creative by learning new steps and making it a "high" rather than a cheap form of entertainment. Such a program becomes self-regenerative and functions with something like perpetual motion.

C. PROVIDING WELL-QUALIFIED LEADERS

In the organization and supervision of group activities there is need for the unifying force of someone who fully appreciates the values of group activities, is trained in the art of leadership, is sensitive to when and where responsibility should be placed. The person-

ality and good-will of such a leader is reflected in his daily contacts with pupils, teachers, parents, and community groups.

I. RESPONSIBILITY AND PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

The selection and in-service education of the personnel engaged in group work constitutes the administrator's most important responsibility. Under present conditions he must depend to a great extent upon teachers. Surveys (11, 1929; 328, 1934; 379, 1927; 514, 1938) have shown that 50 to 75 per cent of the faculty are engaged in various extra-curriculum activities. Thus the chances are at least equal that a teacher will have some responsibility for informal group work in addition to teaching in the classroom. This responsibility may occupy one-seventh or more of the teacher's professional day. Individual activities require annually thirty-one to forty hours of the sponsor's time, some physical education activities being still more time consuming. The extra-curriculum responsibilities carried by a teacher are frequently not related to the teacher's major subject. English teachers may sponsor athletics as well as dramatics, and commercial teachers are frequently responsible for school publications.

This group-work responsibility is carried by teachers who are rated among the highest third of the faculty (58, 1937), but who have been inadequately prepared for the work. Although more than half of them have had some previous experience in the activities which they are sponsoring, at least a fourth have had no specific training for the activity. As to the importance of preparing teachers for these informal group responsibilities, there was general agreement (25, 1929; 202, 1924). According to Briggs (60, 1938), approximately one state teachers' college in five provided instruction in extra-curriculum activities. This instruction, in six institutions, took the form of courses in guidance; in the other institutions the study of extra-class activities was included as units or part of regular courses.

The preparation of prospective teachers for their group-work responsibilities should include opportunities to participate in group activities as member or leader, and to study the philosophy and procedures of group work (202, 1924; 457, 1924). Experience of this kind may be obtained in high schools and community organizations which welcome assistance from college students.

The in-service education of teachers is equally important. School life should be so organized that teachers as well as students enjoy a democratic atmosphere. Mutual co-operation should exist among students, faculty and administrators. The result of such co-operation is a sense of personal responsibility for fair play and service, increas-

ing self-direction, and a more sympathetic basis for teacher-pupil relationships. The value of participation in student activities is as important to the faculty as to the student. Faculty members who keep themselves aloof from student interests and problems are not likely to enter into vital classroom relationships with students.

2. PERSONALITY OF THE GROUP LEADER

If an effective group worker were to be characterized by a single term, it would be integration as defined by Anderson (14, 1940), and contrasted with its opposite, domination. These terms are "convenient labels for two techniques of behaving that have been experimentally demonstrated to be psychologically different" (14:22, 1940).

Integrative behavior is described as follows:

If, instead of compelling the companion to do as one says, one asks the companion and by explanation makes the request meaningful to the other so that the other can voluntarily co-operate, such behavior is said to be an expression not so much of pursuing one's own unique purposes as attempting to discover and get satisfactions through common purposes. For such expenditure of energy in common purposes, for an attempt to reduce instead of to augment or incite conflict of differences, the term integrative behavior is used. The person who can change his mind when confronted with new evidence which has grown out of the experience of another is said to be integrating differences. . . .

Whereas domination stifles or frustrates individual differences, socially integrative behavior respects differences, advances the psychological processes of differentiation. Integrative behavior, as the term is used here, is consistent with the scientific point of view, the objective approach. It designates behavior that is flexible, growing, learning. It is an expression of the operation of democratic processes (15:74, 1939).

This same quality was mentioned by senior college students as one of the qualities they desired in a dean of women. Other personal qualities mentioned were a sense of humor, understanding of youth, sympathy, and natural social aptitude (1, 1932). As a result of these desirable personality tendencies, the effective group leader may help the group to discover what they really want to accomplish. "To foster conditions that widen the horizon of others and give them command of their own powers, so that they can find their own happiness in their own fashion is the way of 'social' action" (148:295, 1922).

Leaders of groups and personnel workers in general will do well to recognize the possible unconscious motivations discovered in an

analysis of the "Big Brothers," who assume that role to guide "Little Brothers" (339, 1938). The following "infantile residuals" were found to exist in some of the "Big Brothers":

"A desire to dominate and to control"

"Tendency to give too much to the Little Brother"

"Homosexual tendencies"

"Excessive need to be appreciated and admired by the Little Brother"

Tendency to force his own standards and ambitions upon the Little Brother without regard to differences in personality. This tendency may result in a desire to have his Little Brother excel all the others.

Any of these unconscious motivations, if present in a group worker, should be recognized and supplanted, if possible, by more mature adjustments.

Central among the mature adjustments is satisfaction in the work itself. Unless a leader genuinely enjoys informal contacts with boys and girls and has a sense of growth in himself as well as in the members, it is not likely that his group work will be creative, buoyant, and joyous.

3. RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE GROUP LEADER

It may be helpful at this point to review briefly some of the specific responsibilities of the group leader. Although it is the initial responsibility of the dean, counselor, or teacher to put a student in contact with a suitable group activity, the group leader of that activity is involved in the decision and arranges for the student to join. After that, the group leader's first responsibility is to learn what kind of person has been admitted. Concomitant with the process of "learning" the new member is the process of helping him to acquire the special knowledge and skills that will enable him to take his place successfully in the group. As part of this process, the group leader will try to arrange conditions to prevent unnecessary failure. Throughout his period with the group, the leader will be alert to opportunities for guidance in the on-going activities of the club. Many subtle and difficult problems involving a nice balance between the good of the group and the good of the individual are sure to arise. Whenever possible, the group leader should set agencies at work that will give members the experiences they need, and, as Dewey said, enable them to gain "command of their own powers . . . and find their own happiness in their own fashion."

The most advanced thought and practice in the leadership of

groups comes from the field of social group work rather than from the field of formal education. Those who are concerned with the improvement of group work in their institutions are urged to follow the proceedings of the group-work section of the National Conference of Social Work, beginning in 1935, and to read the books by Grace Coyle (127, 1930), Henry Busch (80, 1934), and other publications in the field of social work.

D. REGULATING STUDENT PARTICIPATION

Three practical problems arise with respect to student participation in group activities:

1. How may students be guided into activities that are most beneficial for them?
2. What can be done for the students who do not seem to meet the qualifications for any club?
3. How may membership in a club be limited?

Nothing that might properly be called research can be brought to bear on the first two questions. They can, however, be given common-sense answers.

I. GUIDANCE IN CHOICE OF GROUPS

In order to offer sound extra-curriculum guidance, teachers should be acquainted with the individual student and with the group activity. In addition to an understanding of the student's abilities, interests, and needs, the teacher should be informed about his previous experience in groups, his present club activities, and his daily schedule. A knowledge of the student's twenty-four hour activities may be obtained most accurately by means of a simple diary record. These records of daily activities may then be analyzed and the amount of time spent in each type of activity ascertained (546, 1937).

Such an analysis of the activities of 318 junior and senior high school students was reported by Moore (412, 1930). Play and rest were found to occupy about one-half of the leisure time of these boys and girls. Next in frequency were reading and writing, including the home study of school lessons. The third activity, consuming considerable time, was home duties or chores. About four-fifths of the total outside-of-school time of the boys and girls studied was devoted to these three types of activities. Approximately 5 per cent of their time was spent in activities of a musical and artistic nature, and less than 1 per cent in club activity outside of school. Practically all of their outside play time was apparently spent without expert

supervision. Because the activities vary with the situation, information of this kind should be obtained for each local group.

With respect to the group activities, the teacher needs to know the contributions of each, the sponsors, the membership, and the program. This information may be presented to students in a series of assembly programs, in homeroom periods, or in orientation or core courses. Sometimes it is made available in mimeographed or printed form. If the demand for a certain kind of club activity is great, the school should endeavor to find other qualified sponsors or relieve the successful sponsor of other duties in order that she may assume responsibility for additional groups of the same type.

If a wide range of ability is represented by students interested in a certain club, groups requiring different levels of proficiency may be organized. For example, three dramatic clubs may be formed and individuals admitted to each on the basis of the results of a tryout. The most able may join Dramatic Club A, the next best, Club B; and the others, Club C. This somewhat homogeneous grouping enables the sponsor to give the members of each group the kind of experience they need without boring students who are much more proficient. This plan also provides progression of experience because B members may get into the A club next year. Moreover, a more acceptable public performance is insured. Club A thus profits by the stimulus of success, and members of the other clubs gain skill in acting, in social poise, and in spontaneity.

2. GUIDANCE OF THE UNPOPULAR STUDENT

The student who does not appear to meet the qualifications for any club should first be observed in order to discover his latent abilities. His assets may then be made known to influential and sympathetic members of suitable clubs. If no such clubs are available, new clubs may be organized which would require the special qualifications these students possess. Sometimes the student's acceptability may be increased by his acquiring social skills, learning to do some things exceptionally well, and improving some of the superficialities of personal appearance and manners which may create unfavorable reactions toward him.

3. LIMITATION AND STIMULATION OF MEMBERSHIP

Limitation of participation has been more carefully planned than stimulation. Limitation should be based on values of the club to the individual and the individual to the club. Requirements inherent in

the club activities, rather than artificial deterrents such as socioeconomic status, should be the deciding factor.

Although it is common practice to exclude a student from certain groups because of his low scholastic record, this practice may be seriously questioned. If group activities have the educational values claimed for them, the student who is poor in scholarship should not be deprived of these values. Not infrequently the poor student needs the tonic effect of success in some extra-curriculum activity. Occasionally, however, the poor academic record is due to excessive participation in extra-curriculum activities. When this is the case, need of limitation on the basis of scholarship is indicated. In one school each student's marks are given a numerical weighting and make him eligible to as many positions as his sum total of points permit. In this way the students low in scholarship are limited to minor positions but not excluded from participation in the group activities.

Another factor that enters into the problem of limitation of club membership is the equitable distribution of educational opportunity. Because of the emphasis upon getting good results, the most able and proficient students are chosen for positions of responsibility. Those who need the experience most are thus frequently deprived of opportunities for getting it.

The facts on students' participation in group activities indicate the need for regulation. In institutions in which there is no regulation, extremely heavy loads are carried by some students while others are deprived of opportunities for leadership. The point system was developed for the purpose of giving more students the chance to hold offices and of preventing the ambitious student from engaging in more activities than is consistent with good scholarship. The point system is a device for estimating the "activity load" each student is carrying. It may have any of the following aims: to encourage wider participation in student activities; to limit the number of activities in which a student may engage; and to make guidance of students in their choice of activities more effective. Thus it may have both administrative and guidance values.

The point system is usually built on the basis of time and effort spent in each activity. To estimate the time and energy value of any position is obviously difficult, for these factors vary with the size and activities of the group and with the cooperation and ability of its members. A large group, for example, would require more work of the secretary or treasurer than a small group. A vital growing program would demand more of the president than a group that was passively following a traditional program.

The best reference on the point system at the heyday of its popularity is the study made by Johnston (300, 1930). From the analysis of 145 point systems, four types were found to be in use in high schools. The first type is a simple limitation of participation to a definite number of activities; the second involves the grouping of activities into classes. Neither of these two types of system is in frequent use. The third type, limitation to certain combinations of activities, known as major and minor, was used alone or in combination thirty-four times. The most popular method, that of rating activities on a point scale, was used in 118 schools.

Obviously the point system necessitates limiting participation in some cases and stimulating it in others. Approximately one third of the schools varied the limit of permissible activity in proportion to the students' standing in curricular subjects; and one-fifth did not permit failing students to take any part in extra-curriculum activities.

To stimulate group experience 14.5 per cent of the schools required some participation, and 17 per cent allowed credit toward graduation for extra-curriculum activities. The other schools awarded merit or recognition of some sort, scheduled an activity period during the school day, enlarged the scope of the activity program of grade pupils on the quality of their participation. Points may be given on the basis of time; time and honor; time and effort; time and worth-whileness; time, effort, and importance; or time, honor, and responsibility. When emphasis is placed on points leading to an award, the collection of points rather than the activity itself becomes the objective.

Johnston recommended that limitation of activities should be in proportion to opportunities available and that it should take into account the student's twenty-four hour day. He was in favor of varying the participation permitted in accordance with the student's scholastic rating, but was opposed to the barring of failing students from all activity. He was also opposed to any methods of stimulating membership that tended to formalize student activities and to put them on the same competitive, compulsory basis as academic subjects.

The point system has some advantages. Chief among these is the understanding of the requirements of the different positions of leadership. Such knowledge comes through a job analysis of the office and is useful in the nomination and election of officers. The point system may also be used as an instrument of guidance to help a student appraise his group activity. If used flexibly, a well-constructed point system may aid a student in the evaluation of the

activity load he is carrying and may make him aware of some of the problems in administering a program of group activities.

If used arbitrarily, the point system has serious limitations. It leads to the neglect of individual differences and needs. It may also direct students' attention toward points rather than "joy in the working."

In the schools studied, the point system was found to be most commonly administered by the principal with the aid of some permanent record of the students' participation in extra-curriculum activities. Johnston recommended that the adoption of any point system should be preceded by an adequate period of discussion by both students and teachers, of methods of guiding, stimulating, and limiting the number of extra-curriculum activities in which students engage. A joint student-teacher committee responsible for the operation of the point system was recommended. Among some schools that still employ a point system, a trend away from rigid adherence to it may be noted. In other schools the point system has been abandoned and counseling introduced as a substitute.

Although the enthusiasm for point systems has subsided, the process of analyzing student activities in terms of time and effort expended upon them is useful in guiding students in their twenty-four hour activities. The aim of the personnel worker is to help each student discover the optimum of participation for him and to make the activities he needs available to him. Regulation of participation is a counseling, not an administrative problem.

E. FINANCING OF STUDENT ACTIVITIES

The financing of student activities has received more attention than many other administrative aspects (399, 1929). The problem as a whole seems to center around three main divisions; methods of raising funds, methods of handling and accounting, and methods of equitable distribution of funds on hand.

I. RAISING FUNDS

The following criteria should be applied in attempts to judge the methods of raising money:

1. What are the returns in educational value for the time and labor expended?
2. Does the method require a minimum of time and energy?
3. Are the methods of a dignified and ethical character, warranting public approval?

4. Do they teach students business techniques?
5. Are they in proportion to the economic status of the students?

Schools vary greatly as to the extent of the extra-curriculum program and consequently in the amount of money handled and methods of handling it. Financing high school activities is "big business." A survey (378, 1926) of 268 high schools in different parts of the United States showed a wide range in total amount of money handled—from \$300 in one school to \$125,000 in another, with a median of about \$4,000. In a more recent survey (445, 1932) of California senior high schools it was found that \$1,106,101.77 was collected from gate receipts and sales by student bodies in 173 California senior high schools during the school year 1930-31. At Union College (384, 1938), the total funds which the activity office handled included \$15,000 of material assets and a "turnover" of approximately \$14,000. Of this total, \$5,000 was obtained from box office admissions charged for non-athletic activities. Even the smallest schools and colleges handle amounts sufficiently large to warrant the employment of businesslike methods.

Many plans for financing student activities are in operation. Among the various sources of funds to support them are the following:

- General student fees and assessments.
- Membership dues—fees and assessments.
- Season ticket sales and gate receipts for athletic events.
- Receipts from admission to plays, concerts, and other performances.
- Sales of publications.
- Sales of advertising space.
- Carnivals, fairs, circuses, minstrel shows, candy sales, and movies.
- Outside contributions and donations from businessmen.
- Appropriation by board of education from general school funds.
- Budget from treasury of student body.

One of the most popular plans for financing the program is the activity-ticket plan (18, 1941; 115, 1926; 384, 1938; 390, 1929; 439, 1932; 512, 1936). Under this plan one ticket admits the pupil to every activity for which a charge is made.

In one high school (512, 1936) admission to these activities would amount to \$10.65. Under the activity-ticket plan students may attend all of them for \$3.25 if made in one payment, or \$3.75 in weekly payments. The cost of the ticket depends upon the extent of

the program of activities and upon the size of the budget for the year. The method of operation is as follows: During the first week those wishing to join sign a subscription contract and pay twenty-five cents. Each student is then given an activity identification folder containing his photograph. Each week thereafter upon payment of ten cents in his homeroom, he is given a ticket for the week which has the same number as his identification card. In colleges and universities the activity fee is usually higher. For example, \$11.00 at Union College (384, 1938) and \$20.00 at Teachers College of Connecticut.

The activity-ticket plan has three major advantages:

1. It is of mutual benefit to the general organization and to the individual, provided the cost is not excessive.
2. It allows the finance committee to make a more accurate estimate of the budget for the year.
3. It makes possible activities which are valuable but not remunerative.

A practical advantage is that the activity-ticket plan eliminates the frequent campaigns of many organizations selling tickets to their events and imposes the necessity of preparing a calendar of events ahead of time to achieve a satisfactory spread of events throughout the weeks. Moreover, the activity-ticket plan tends to increase students' participation in school affairs. R. R. Palm (439, 1932) reported that under the separate admission method only one-half of the students patronized events at any one time, that from thirty to fifty ticket-selling campaigns were necessary each year, and that \$8.00 would be the cost of all activities, excluding class and club dues. The activity ticket doubled the attendance, reduced the complete price from \$8.00 to \$4.00, eliminated thirty ticket-selling campaigns, enabled more students to be interested in activities, and empowered the school to finance its social program through the depression.

In another school (512:3, 1936), in which the activity plan was operating, 375, or approximately one-third of the students represented in the plan, paid in full. Of the students on the weekly payment plan only forty failed to keep up their payments at the end of the eighteenth week.

The disadvantage of the method lies in the fact that it entails a great amount of bookkeeping, especially if the tickets are paid for on the installment plan, which necessitates the checking of payments as well as the canceling and recalling of unpaid tickets. A large amount

of labor and the paying of printing costs is entailed if the schools require a payment weekly and change the color of the card each week.

Another plan for financing student activities is based on the principle that if an activity is vital enough to exist at all, it should be able to meet its expenses. Thus in Buffalo (78, 1928) the entire sports program was financed from moneys realized from the sale of tickets. Gate receipts were divided equally among the seven high schools, after all expenses were paid. Disadvantages of such a plan have already been implied in the foregoing discussion.

2. HANDLING AND ACCOUNTING

In many schools loose practices in handling funds have been the source of many deplorable conditions.

The school that provides a favorable situation for loose practices in handling money is little short of criminal. The crime is not so much that some pupils, teachers or board members have an easy chance to be dishonest. It is rather that as a result of the schools' muddling along, pupils come to think that public business should be handled in that way (212:466, 1931).

In secondary schools the most common plan was to have the financial affairs of all organizations operated in and through the principal's office. In fact, a centralized accounting system for student funds functioning under the direction of the board of education or principal is required by law in some states (445, 1932). Thus responsibility for the proper control of expenditures from student funds rests with the principal, though he may share with the student council responsibility for the adoption of a budget for student activities. In some instances a hierarchy of responsibility exists—a student treasurer is responsible to the school treasurer, who is responsible to the principal, who is responsible to the treasurer of the board of education with whom rests the final authority.

Another form of financial organization and accounting is in the hands of the commercial department. For example, in a high school in Illinois (516, 1924), responsibility for handling student-activity funds was centralized under one faculty member, the head of the commercial department. The actual bookkeeping, however, has, in some instances, been done entirely by the advanced class in accounting. The advantages of this centralized system of finance control are:

1. The plan gives students freedom without subjecting them to too great temptation or difficulty.

2. The uniform system, properly supervised, makes it possible to ascertain the standing of any organization on short notice.
3. The plan economizes faculty time.
4. The plan permits flexibility in the use of funds; money can be loaned to one organization by another.
5. Each organization has its own records.
6. The students do not feel that their integrity is questioned.
7. The plan gives commercial students some practical work in filing and accounting.
8. The board of education and the public feel that the school's finances are handled in a businesslike manner.

Still more educational is the plan by which a real school bank handles the accounts of both individuals and organizations. This plan of handling student-activity funds gives practical banking and business experience to many students.

Heading the financial aspects of student activities should be a finance committee or board composed of both faculty and students (18, 1941). Such a committee should represent the best interests of the school, co-operate with the budget committee, and publish annually a complete financial statement.

Obviously, steps should be taken to develop an efficient and sound business procedure for handling student-activity funds. The business side, however, is only one phase of the problem, subsidiary to the more important consideration of meeting students' needs. When business efficiency or inefficiency conflicts with the best development of students, a modification of the procedure for handling student-activity finances is indicated.

3. BUDGETARY PROCEDURES

Methods of equitable distribution of funds likewise involve a certain amount of centralization. The duties of the budget committee are as follows:

1. The preparation of the budget for the fiscal year after receiving the estimate of the cost of each organization's plan of activities. (This gives students within the various organizations the experience of making their budget and living within it.)
2. The investigation of all requests for funds and recommendations for a just allotment for each activity.

One common fund, with a budget committee to distribute it fairly,

is democratic in its principles, as opposed to a system by which each activity is compelled to support itself. Equity in its broadest sense means that the music club, for instance, does not fail because of lack of funds while the athletic club is able to carry on an ambitious program. The relative importance attached to different activities is indicated in part by the allotment of funds provided for activities in a particular institution. For example, the percentage of funds provided for dramatic work covered a range of from 1.5 per cent in one university to 18 per cent in two other institutions (554, 1939).

A plan developed in Eagle Rock High School, Los Angeles (21, 1931), appears to combine sound business procedure with the personnel point of view. The student funds were administered under one central budget set up under the direction of the student council. Every group, properly organized and represented, obtained financial support by justifying its needs and presenting an acceptable budget. Every group was encouraged and helped but not required to make a contribution to the general budget. To insure the success of the plan, a campaign of education was promoted preceding the date at which individual budgets had to be submitted. After club budgets were approved, they were submitted to the principal for final ratification.

Leonard and Palmer (335, 1934) have prepared a useful manual giving details on how to build and balance budgets for men's and women's fraternities. Information about expenditures, working budgets, sources of income, methods of increasing income and decreasing expenses are concretely presented.

If the amount of literature obtainable on this problem of financing the social program is an index of the attention given to this problem, the high schools have outdistanced the colleges in carefully planned business methods. Dean J. A. Park (440, 1931) of Ohio University pointed out that, in colleges, there seems to be no uniformity of system; the practice varies from the paternal to the *laissez-faire*, from too strict a supervision, with all checks countersigned by members of the faculty, to complete indifference on the part of the faculty.

Like other aspects of the student-activity program, the budgeting of funds offers excellent educational opportunities. In the process of meeting the financial needs of the program, students may obtain experience in sound business methods and be led to evaluate the worth of the various school activities.

F. CO-ORDINATING GROUP ACTIVITIES

The development of group integration must not be left to chance nor be confined to spontaneously formed groups. Rather, the group

program should be planned as an integral part of an educational system and become "the center of the socializing process and the basis for social living" (52:206, 1938). The most effective co-ordination is obtained through a common philosophy and purpose and the process of education, yet attention has been given far more extensively to administrative details designed to effect co-ordination.

I. FORMS OF CO-ORDINATION

Programs for the administration and organization of group work may follow one of several forms: (1) the centralized organization, in which one person, usually the dean of women, the dean of men, or a specially appointed director of group activities assumes responsibility for co-ordinating all phases of the program; (2) the decentralized organization, in which all activities are independent and unrelated; (3) a federation of student activities; or (4) some combination of these three. Descriptions and surveys of college personnel programs indicate the centralized type to be most generally in operation.

a. Centralized programs.—The program at Barnard College is an example of the centralized type of program. Both curricular and extra-curriculum activities are centralized in the Dean, who serves on the Committee of Instruction and the Faculty Committee of Student Affairs. Four Assistant Deans—of Dormitories, Vocational Guidance, Social Affairs, and Admissions—assume major responsibility for administering their respective phases of the general program. The entire philosophy of the college and the aims in each department are so closely allied with the objectives of a program of social education that unity of purpose is noticeable throughout the organization of the college as a whole. The program of social life is co-ordinated in the office of the Assistant Dean in Charge of Social Affairs. The actual administration of the program is in reality in the hands of the students themselves and is centralized through the office of Social Affairs.

The organization at Stephens College (462, 1933) is another example of centralization. In 1931 the Extra-Curricular Division was made a part of the regular curriculum. The head of this division was given rank co-ordinate with that of the heads of the instructional divisions. While all of these division leaders were co-ordinated by a Dean of Instruction, the Adviser on Social Adjustment was given authority cutting across the other divisions. He was made chairman of the Extra-Curricular Division Steering Committee and of the Extra-Curricular Executive Committee of sponsors. He was

also a member of the Administrative Committee, ex-officio non-voting member of the Committee on Instruction, and sponsor of the Civic Association of the Student Body. The advisory system likewise was centralized. Each faculty member had thirty advisees whom he helped to plan their college living as a well-rounded whole.

The program at Sacramento Junior College (348, 1930) is representative of a type becoming popular especially in the West. The Dean of Extra-Curricular Activities, as the co-ordinating head, serves as Chairman of the Committee of Sponsors of Student Organizations, acts as the President's representative at all assemblies and meetings of the Student Council, and is a member of the President's Cabinet and of the administrative committees on scholarship, finance, social affairs, and intercollegiate relations.

The advantages of centering responsibility for student organizations in one individual may bring student activities to a high level of efficiency and may stimulate sponsors to more effective leadership. The disadvantage lies in not having the program of group work co-ordinated by a person who sees personnel work as a whole and who will fuse counseling with group activities.

The committee organization is a form of centralized program which was prevalent in teachers' colleges (504, 1933). Eighty per cent of the forty institutions surveyed reported that the president appointed a faculty committee to co-ordinate and supervise the program of student activities. In 73 per cent of the cases the dean of men, dean of women, and heads of dormitories were ex-officio members of the committee. Activities co-ordinated under the sponsorship of a general student organization were reported by 75 per cent of the teachers' colleges. In about the same number of institutions the president, with the advice of the faculty committee, appointed advisers for each student activity. Ninety-three per cent gave the president veto power in matters of the extra-curriculum. This survey presents further evidence of the tendency to centralize responsibility for social education either in one person or in a committee.

A study of the program of social education at the University of Chicago (476, 1933) shows the transition from a decentralized organization to one highly centralized. In order to correct weaknesses in the previous decentralized system, control of all extra-curriculum activities was placed under a dean of students.

b. Decentralized programs.—Harvard may be cited as an example of the decentralized type of organization. There, the essential elements of the program of social education are implemented through the tutorial system, which is centered within the residence

houses and the departments of the college. Curricular and extra-curriculum affairs function in small units. Like the English system, this type of setup stresses the importance of informal personal contacts rather than a definite program, and has much to commend it.

c. Federation of student activities.—Centralization in the hands of the students represents another form of organization. At Alabama College (541, 1938) campus activities were co-ordinated through the medium of the "Presidents' Council." This body is composed of presidents of all student organizations, and its own president is elected from the student body. Its functions include the scheduling of meetings, the giving of demonstrations and lectures on parliamentary law for the benefit of newly elected officers, the classification of activities, the granting of charters to new organizations, and the study of participation in different campus groups.

d. Co-ordination through the student union.—The student union building is an important physical means of encouraging extensive association among boys and girls. In one university three major personnel officers are employed: the dean of women, the dean of men, and the director of the student union. In this situation the deans and the faculty have good ideas about the union, but their suggestions are not solicited. There are few meetings and no organization through which an exchange of ideas and discussions of policy and procedures could be effected.

In another university the three major officers are the dean of student life, who also serves as dean of men and presides as chairman of the personnel committee; the dean of women, who has three assistants, one of whom is on the student union board; and the director of the student union. In this situation a close co-ordination of campus activities is effected through the personnel committee and the tie-up between the staff of the dean of women and the student union.

e. Other forms of organization.—In another university responsibility is shared by a larger number of persons. Each college has a personnel director who meets the particular needs of the college. For example, the personnel director in one school is a psychologist; in another school, a psychiatrist. These directors are concerned with the social education of students as well as with their educational and personal problems, but frequently do not recognize, or are not prepared for this responsibility. The dominant philosophy is that all members of the faculty are a part of the student personnel staff and an attempt is being made to educate them in this point of view. The director of student welfare serves as chairman of a committee com-

posed of the director of the student union and the personnel director of each college.

In the ultra-progressive colleges and secondary schools there is complete decentralization. The faculty is responsible for whatever social education there is—usually a high quality with respect to appreciation, and spontaneous informal groups. Social education takes place informally as when a student, pausing to look at a new picture in the hall, is joined by a faculty member, who stops and chats with him about the picture and his interests in general. Sometimes a small group gathers, and appreciation and understanding grow.

The group-activity program has suffered by departmentalization. Too often group work has been divorced from counseling and from the curriculum. Too frequently, likewise, the group activities of girls have developed for the most part separately from those of boys. Thus cases which involve the social interests of boys seldom have the benefit of the dean of women's point of view, and social events and interest groups may be attended exclusively by boys or by girls.

This tendency toward segregation may be corrected in several ways. In schools and colleges having a dean of boys and a dean of girls or a dean of men and a dean of women, close co-operation between these two officers is essential for the success of the program. If these officers are responsible respectively for a boys' or men's league and a girls' or women's league, they should see that many joint functions and projects are planned. In other forms of organization efforts should be made to achieve a similar fusion of social and recreational interests of boys and girls.

2. CO-ORDINATION OF GROUP WORK IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

Less attention, apparently, has been given to the problem of co-ordination of group activities in high schools than in colleges. An early survey of thirteen large and fifty small schools (624, 1917) reported one failing in all of them, namely, the lack of a responsible head to supervise and co-ordinate all the activities. One school reported that during the year in which a supervisor was appointed as the key person in the program, the difficulties previously encountered disappeared. In the high school, as well as in the college, there is danger of divorcing the informal group activities from the curriculum and other phases of personnel work. In the ideal organization co-ordination would be effected by an individual or a committee, who sees education steadily and as a whole, and who can create conditions under which every member of the staff makes his optimum contribution to the development and guidance of all the students. The im-

plementation of an educational program of group work requires the concerted action of the entire school staff.

G. SUPERVISING GROUP ACTIVITIES

Supervision is a means of implementing the principles of group work. From the standpoint of the co-ordinator of student activities, supervision is the process of helping the faculty become more effective in their work with groups. From the standpoint of the individual sponsor of a student activity, supervision means helping students to gain the maximum of educational value from their informal activities.

I. THE PROBLEM OF RELATIONSHIPS

The most important problem confronting the supervisor of student activities is one of relationships. The best way to bring about sympathetic and objective relationships among people is to establish dynamic purposes which all strive to achieve. If faculty and students feel that the group activities in which they engage are merely a more or less pleasant kind of busy work, they are not welded together in any dynamic relationship. When sponsors find it necessary to "drum up trade" for their clubs, a lack of interest in and feeling of responsibility for student activities is indicated. An extensive investigation (434, 1937) indicated that students themselves can assume the leadership, ordinarily left to the teacher, in improving their social behavior. In this process the students' self-analysis, self-judgment, and self-direction were employed.

2. STUDENT INITIATIVE AND ADULT GUIDANCE

Both the worth of the enterprise and the process by which it is carried on are important. Accordingly, group leaders should be more concerned with the process than with results that appear on the surface.

If "it is he who does the thinking, who faces the problems, who makes the plans, who alone achieves both the growth and happiness" (171:6, 1928), then teachers and sponsors have frequently deprived students of educational opportunities by doing their thinking and planning for them. The problem is one of balance between student initiative and adult guidance. One is interwoven with the other; each makes its unique contribution. The club sponsor's greatest contribution is the more mature judgment he brings to bear upon questions and problems baffling the group.

Various degrees of direction and supervision are exercised in dif-

ferent institutions. In one college informal teas were mentioned by many persons on the campus as being particularly successful. Faculty wives were invited to pour, and a good representation of faculty and students attended. However, when the person in charge was asked, "Who invites the faculty wives?" he answered, "I do." To the question, "Who meets them and introduces students to the faculty?" he replied, "We [my staff] do." Thus students were being deprived of the experience of doing these things.

At the other extreme is a social program, part of which was managed by students who were selected on the basis of their need for the remuneration which is paid for the services. These students were given very little instruction or supervision. The result was a poor type of social life. The building was not clean nor well cared for. It was considered a place in which to loaf. Thus this social program, almost entirely under student control without guidance from a specialist in group work, functioned on the lower rather than on the higher levels of human relations.

Many educators profess a faith in the principles of democracy, but feel trepidation as to their applicability to the "immature" students. They look forward to the day when they will become mature and responsible, and then they will bestow on them their full measure of freedom. There is some justification in this point of view. Nothing is gained by plunging students into responsibilities for which they are unprepared. Some recent college graduates have said that they were not going to give their children as much freedom as they themselves have had. They felt that the freedom they had been given—and took advantage of—was permanently detrimental to their health and emotional adjustment. In this, as in so many other respects, extremes are to be avoided and individualization emphasized.

A practical question frequently asked, especially with reference to delinquents and mentally retarded children, is "Will democratic procedures work?" Significant evidence on this question is supplied by the experiment at the Wayne County Training School in Northville, Michigan (315, 1938). This institution was "designed for the training of high-grade mentally defective children, most of whom are delinquent as well" (315:585, 1938). The aim was to help these children adjust satisfactorily to the community. This experiment in "self-determined activity" involved the establishment of Homestead Cottage, separated physically as well as psychologically from the rest of the institution. The thirty-nine boys living in the cottage were selected on the basis of their behavior and their election by the rest of the group. Thus living in Homestead Cottage was clearly recog-

nized as a privilege; it was the group which all the boys strove to enter. The mean age of the Homestead group was 17.1 years; the mean I.Q., 65. In this group the boys handled their own discipline problems, and group disapproval served as the most important disciplinary force. The supervisor, freed of the responsibility for direct discipline, planned activities and constructive programs. Part of this constructive program was work in the kitchen under the supervision of the cook. As proof of the beneficial results of this experiment in democracy, Kephart presented case studies of boys whose poor adjustment was apparently corrected by group disapproval and the satisfaction resulting from group acceptance. He also stated that the group has demonstrated "its ability to manage its own affairs," that "fewer difficulties arise in this group than in any other group on the grounds," and that "this group has never committed any break of acceptable adolescent behavior" (315:588, 1938). These results, he believes, were due to the way in which Homestead Cottage has been operated—"through showing the boys that non-conformity does not bring extra attention, but merely isolation from the group" (315:590, 1938).

In the case of retarded children in an institution, the social structure of the group is particularly important. It must be remembered, however, that a self-governing system is not always truly democratic. This form of organization may become an autocracy when the "autocratic function is shifted from the adult to some few members of the group" (316:96, 1939).

Evidence is accumulating that a democratic procedure tends to produce more extensive, continuing, interested, and educative student participation than either autocratic or *laissez-faire* policies.

3. APPROVAL OF GOOD WORK

Another factor in successful supervision is the recognition of persons who have discharged their responsibilities exceptionally well. Such recognition gives the individual deserved personal satisfaction; it clarifies for him the kind of behavior which is approved; and it acquaints other students with persons who have been doing good work and who are ready to accept advanced responsibility. Personal recognition, judiciously bestowed, need not inhibit the development of the still more important satisfaction in the success of the group.

Such approval should not be limited to exceptional achievement. The individual who finds pleasure in group activity, even though he does not excel, should obtain social satisfaction as well as the more gifted member. Each person has an "achievement maturity" as well

as an emotional maturity. Although excellence should be recognized, it should not displace recognition of what might be called psychological achievement—relative excellence in terms of an individual's capacities.

4. PROGRESSION OF EXPERIENCES

This recognition of individual differences in "achievement maturity" will make the group leader aware of the importance of progression in group experiences (68, 1933). Such progression may be vertical or horizontal, i.e., an individual's already existing abilities and interests may be accentuated and developed or he may acquire interests and abilities in new fields. Competitive aspects of group activities which eliminate all but the most proficient members work directly against a desirable progression of experience for all students. Each learner should have opportunities to make a significant contribution and to progress from childhood to adulthood in social and civic responsibility.

Some of the problems of progression may be specifically illustrated by Blanshard's analysis (40, 1937) of phenomenon of "sophomore slump." This period of restlessness and vague dissatisfaction appears to be due, in part at least, to a lack of progression from the freshman to the sophomore year. No one makes a fuss over the sophomore when she comes back for her second year; she has to work harder on her courses because instructors expect more of a sophomore; she has to work harder to win a position of responsibility in extra-curriculum activities, and runs the risk of being humiliated by a defeat. Moreover, she feels the pressure of important educational and vocational decisions which she ought to make at this time.

These needs of sophomores are met in several ways. The faculty adviser and vocational director confer with each student about her educational and vocational plans. These individual conferences are supplemented by a series of talks by representatives of different vocations.

What are we doing to help the sophomores meet another difficulty—the strain of competition in extra-curricular activities? Obviously, they have to learn not to take competition too seriously. We try to help them see it in proper perspective by building up in the college extra-curricular activities which are not competitive, notably group activities in the creative arts. There is a sketch group, with a professional artist as instructor, which meets once a week to draw and paint. There are several musical groups with frequent meetings for playing chamber music, singing folk songs, or listening to fine phonograph records. There is a writing group

open to anyone who wishes to submit some of her own work, and to criticize the productions of other students. And there is an exceedingly flourishing dramatics group which works on all phases of play production. These are groups open to all men and women, in which the element of competition is negligible. Some students prefer these activities to "trying out" for positions on publications and student government committees. Some like to combine both kinds of activities (40:109, 1937).

Progression of experience is only part of the larger problem of scientific extra-curriculum revision. Both curriculum and extra-curriculum revision should be fused into one sustained professional study. Both involve the ascertaining of the needs of students and the needs of the community and providing for a sequence of activities that contributes most to the development of the student and the group.

H. SPECIFIC ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS

A number of perennial problems involve administrative aspects. Those which have not already been discussed may be stated as a series of questions:

1. Should a period for informal group activities be scheduled during the school day? The advantages of such a period are worthy of consideration. Scheduling time for these activities during the school day gives them sanction and dignity in the eyes of parents; it helps to break down the barrier between the curriculum and the extra-curriculum; it provides time for important educative work in committees and on programs; and it is democratic in that it gives every student a chance to engage in club activities even though his after-school hours have to be spent in commuting, home duties, or remunerative work.

In some schools where activity periods have been introduced, they have been a dismal failure. The reason for this failure lies primarily in the teachers' lack of knowledge of how to use such a period. Students have made it clear that they prefer a study period to a poorly conducted club. The solution of this problem is to acquaint both teachers and students with the potential values of an activity period, and to help them acquire the techniques for making it a success. Until teachers acquire the necessary interest and skill, it is probably better to use the period for study or to use only an occasional period for the informal curriculum.

When the club period is incorporated into the school day, several other difficulties are encountered. The work of most of

the clubs is not suited to a period of set length; the transition from class period to club period, and back causes loss of time and momentum. For these reasons the last period of the day has been found the most satisfactory for club work (526, 1928).

Time for the activity period may be provided in various ways. If there is an unassigned period in the school day, it may be used for this purpose. Regular periods may be shortened enough to make an extra period each day. A long noon hour may be used for committee meetings and club programs. For obvious reasons it is usually unwise to lengthen the school day or to turn a long-established study period into a club period.

2. How can the school win parents' co-operation? Since understanding is the basis of co-operation, it is important that parents be informed concerning the group-activity program. Some groups of parents welcome club activities, while others believe that school days should be devoted to the acquiring of the three R's. At parent-teachers association meetings, at assembly periods to which parents are invited, at "Parents' Night" when parents may observe the kinds of activity that go on during the school day, and by means of conferences and letters, parents may gain an appreciation of the group-activity program. This gradual educational approach to parents is the antithesis of the arbitrary procedure of the principal who suddenly announced the advent of a group-activity program, lengthened the school day by an hour, made existing extra-curriculum activities compulsory, and thus thoroughly antagonized parents, students, and teachers.
3. How can student opinion be rallied to the support of a constructive group-activity program? One of the most important ways of gaining student support is to assure success in the initial stages of a program. Carefully planned successful meetings require a great deal of educational work on the part of the sponsor, with individual students and with committees outside of the club hour.
4. Should academic credit be given to students for their club work? A number of pros and cons have been mobilized with respect to this question. Those opposed to giving credit for club activity say that doing so creates an unnatural situation and tends to destroy the happy voluntary aspect of group activity. The reward should be intrinsic in the activity and in the personal development that ensues as the result of participation.

The piling up of credit, on the other hand, is contrary to progressive trends in education. Those who favor giving credit for group activity believe that doing so will help to break down the barrier between the curriculum and the extra-curriculum and that academic credit is one means of giving students recognition for good work.

I. CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

The administration and supervision of student activities seem to be moving toward more truly democratic procedures, in place of the benevolent despot attitude accepted thirty years ago:

Happy is the institution where the bold assertion of power is never made, where authority is so exercised that students are unaware of it, where students are so consulted and advised and quietly led toward worthy standards that they seem to make the laws which they obey (187:55, 1910).

The danger of swinging too far in the direction of student control is being avoided by emphasis on the need for a beneficial balance between student initiative and adult guidance.

The quality of adult leadership is one of the most vulnerable points in the program. Surveys have shown that group work in educational institutions is largely in the hands of members of the faculty, and that they are not adequately prepared for their group-work responsibilities. Adequate preparation presupposes selection of persons qualified by personality and actual practice as well as study of group-work procedures.

Progress has been made with respect to certain procedures. Out of informal experimentation with point systems has emerged the conviction that the regulation of student participation is a counseling, rather than an administrative problem. Out of similar experimentation with methods of financing student activities have resulted a number of plans that are both educative for the student and acceptable to school authorities.

The educational basis for co-ordination is not yet sufficiently recognized. Attention is still being directed toward the machinery of co-ordination with insufficient effort expended in creating an underlying understanding and appreciation of the essence of successful co-ordination; namely, vision and good-will. Both of these qualities may be developed through expert supervision—supervision that is keenly aware of the importance of human relationships, the situation as a determinant of behavior, the role of satisfaction, and the progression

of experience in the case of each student. To be effective, administrators "must work through power generated within individuals."

J. RESEARCH NEEDED

Research on administration of group activities is practically nonexistent. There are even few descriptions of the process by which certain apparently desirable results were achieved. Yet the need for such research is great. Personnel workers need to know the effect on students and on the effectiveness of group work of different administrative procedures. The general pattern of research involves the careful evaluation of central supervision, of committee co-ordination, of student control, of the group-activity program in terms of student development. Every change in administrative policy is an opportunity for this type of research. The effect on individuals and on the group of one administrative policy can be carefully observed and recorded and compared with the same kind of records kept after a change of policy was made.

CHAPTER III

SURVEYS AND DESCRIPTIONS OF GROUP ACTIVITIES

THE bulk of investigations relating to campus groups concerns the description and classification of the principal types of social groups on the campus. Relatively few investigations are concerned with social processes—the study of interaction among individuals or groups. Still less attention has been given to the pathology of groups in educational institutions and to methods of dealing with aberrations in group life.

Investigations relating to group activities fall into five categories: (1) surveys relating to group activities, (2) descriptions of group work in various institutions, (3) studies of relationships between participation in group activities and other factors, (4) evaluation of the results of guidance in groups, and (5) experiments on psychological and sociological bases of group experiences. All of these kinds of investigations yield some information that should help the personnel officer to do more effective work with groups (547:53, 1940).

Surveys of group activities should not be lumped all together and condemned *en masse*, for they vary greatly in nature and quality. Many have consisted merely of counting and classifying campus and school activities. But some have supplied qualitative and descriptive material, and have included indications of the successful use of certain group-work procedures. Other surveys have ascertained the social needs of students as a basis for planning programs, and still others have enlisted students or alumni to evaluate the activities.

Surveys are needed in every school or college, on the basis of which to provide for every student experiences that will meet his needs and supplement facilities already available. For this reason the survey methods described in published articles are fully as important as the findings reported.

A. SURVEY METHODS

The method of collecting data in surveys has been predominantly the questionnaire. Many forms of this much abused and overused

instrument have been employed in surveys of group activities. A precisely formulated questionnaire can elicit much accurate factual data. A thoughtfully worded questionnaire may evoke an expression of valuable opinions. A carelessly constructed or answered questionnaire, on the other hand, may distort reality and lead to false conclusions. Whenever possible, questionnaire data should be supplemented by observation and interview. Hand (236, 1938) introduced a unique feature by using the questionnaire as an instrument by means of which the Stanford Student Leadership Seminar obtained information about group work on other campuses.

Observation in an institution will disclose qualitative aspects of group activities that cannot be ascertained by means of the questionnaire. To be sure, only limited aspects of the program can be observed, but even scattered incidents, accurately described, may be straws which show which way the wind is blowing. For example, an hour spent at the chapel service of one college indicated more clearly than any of the questionnaire data the students' unfavorable attitude toward compulsory chapel services.

Casual observation may be made more systematic if the observer is guided by a list of items to be observed. This method insures the observation of all important points. It may have the disadvantage, however, of restricting the observer's attention to the items on his schedule, and thus making it difficult for him to see new relationships and unique features.

The most rigid form of directed observation is the rating scale. One of the most elaborate rating scales was constructed for this purpose by Gardner (214, 1936) and used in the survey of fifty-seven carefully chosen and representative institutions of the North Central Association. The items on page 61 with their respective weightings were included in that portion of the scale devoted to group activities.

In spite of its comprehensive concreteness, a scale of this kind has two main disadvantages. It does not provide for evaluation of the quality of the services or allow for exceptional features which may redeem a generally poor program or mar a program that otherwise rates high.

The best surveys obtain most of their information from institutional visitation and a minimum from questionnaires. Representative of the combination of methods are the early survey of student activities in Lutheran colleges (600, 1929) and the recent survey of colleges and universities accredited by the North Central Association (233, 1939). Both of these surveys obtained data from two main

Extra-curriculum Activities Program

A. Attitude toward activities

1. Viewed as constructive elements in student life and to be used to develop and stimulate students

10*

2. Regarded as necessary, but of little value

2*

B. Advisory system and methods of supervision

1. Final control rests with faculty

10

2. Each organization, except athletics, has adviser selected by it and approved by the faculty; and athletics are controlled by a faculty committee

5†

3. Each organization, except athletics, has adviser selected by the students

2†

4. Each organization, except athletics, has an adviser selected by the faculty

2†

5. Student participation in all activities representing institution in public is based on a definite academic standing which is not lower than the graduation requirement

3

6. Student participation in all other activities dependent on individual student's situation

2‡

7. Student participation regulated by a point system

2‡

C. Scope of extra-curriculum program except athletics

1. Provision made for the following types of activities

20

a) Student government

5

b) Publications

2

c) Oratory, debate, dramatics

2

d) Musical organization

2

e) Departmental clubs

2

f) Social organizations

2

g) Religious organizations

2

h) Miscellaneous organizations

3

(214: 121-22, 1936)

* These scores are alternate choices; assign only one in the case of any given institution.

† Alternate choices; assign only one.

‡ Alternate choices; assign only one.

sources, namely, schedules and visitation. The sources of data canvassed by Van Wagenen (600, 1929) were printed matter of the colleges; blanks sent to personnel officers, faculty, and students; personal interviews with officers and members of clubs; and observation of groups during business and social sessions. These data were reported in the form of statistical summaries and anecdotal and case material. The general plan of the report is one which, with some modification, might be more generally followed: (1) to describe accurately the present situation employing a combination of methods which serve to check one another, (2) to set up standards based upon best theory and practice, (3) to compare the situation described with the standards,¹ (4) to make recommendations in the light of this comparison and of other facts known about the institution.

Such a survey should be judged on the basis of the adequacy and accuracy of the description, the soundness of the implications, the synthesis of the details, the reasonableness of the recommendations, and the significance of the problems suggested for further study. It would be still more profitable to spend time in trying to ascertain the changes actually occurring in students partly as a result of group work. This could be done only in a self-survey of an institution over a period of time.

An even more elaborate method of studying both personal and social factors in a college community was devised and tested by Bickham (37, 1929). It consisted of preliminary observation of the college and community groups and social forces that interplay in the college, life histories of the institution, and life histories and case studies of individuals, including interviews that will uncover underlying difficulties in adjustment. All the data obtained by these means were to be used in ascertaining the relations of the students to their organizations and the effect of these relations on personality.

B. NUMBER AND KINDS OF STUDENT ACTIVITIES

The number of different student organizations in colleges and universities runs into the hundreds. In a group of twelve denominational colleges (600, 1929) 164 different activities were mentioned. A similar multiplicity of student groups was reported at the University of Minnesota and at Wittenberg College (396, 1932). In the more recent survey by Hand (236, 1938) half of the colleges and universities reported as many as twenty-eight activities, and three-fourths, as many as forty-five campus groups. The range was from

¹ In more recent surveys evaluation has been made in terms of the objectives of the institution being studied rather than in terms of general standards.

five to slightly over two hundred organized groups on a single campus. A wide range in number of activities was likewise reported in other surveys.

Teachers' Colleges (409, 1929) reported similar conditions. Typical of recent surveys are the canvass of extra-curriculum activities in one hundred state teachers' colleges by Briggs (60, 1938) who found a range in number of activities from 20 to 125, the median being 42.6. The larger institutions tended to offer a somewhat larger number of activities than the smaller colleges, but not consistently so.

Lack of similarity in classification prevents accurate comparison between teachers' colleges and liberal arts colleges and universities. There seemed, however, to be more attention given in the university to academic and professional, honorary, and athletic and military activities than in the teachers' colleges. Since extra-curriculum activities in the teachers' colleges have professional as well as personal value to the students, we should expect an extensive program of group work in these institutions.

In high schools, as in institutions of higher learning, student organizations are numerous. Interest groups have sprung up with mushroomlike rapidity. In questionnaire replies from 307 schools belonging to the North Central Association, Clement (107, 1939) noted that although a large number of activities were offered in the ninth grade, the emphasis was upon relatively few, namely, basketball, band, football, track and field, orchestra, glee club, volleyball, and dramatics. These were the only activities mentioned by more than one hundred of the schools replying.

C. PARTICIPATION IN STUDENT ACTIVITIES

The number of group activities available in any school or college does not tell the whole story. The extent to which students engage in these activities and the quality of their participation is more important. The extent but not the quality of participation has been extensively studied.

I. EXTENT OF PARTICIPATION

The extent of participation in student activities varies from 100 per cent in the few institutions (which require every student to join at least one student activity) to less than 25 per cent in institutions having a large proportion of commuting students, or a feeble activity program. At the University of Minnesota (98, 1929) in 1924-25 one-third of the students were engaging in no campus activities.

GROUP ACTIVITIES

Approximately the same proportion of students engaged in student activities in California junior colleges (167, 1930). More specifically, approximately one-fourth participated in no activities, almost another fourth in one activity, slightly more than one-fifth in two activities, and the remaining number in from three to seven activities.

A survey of campus activities in twelve four-year Alabama colleges—four coeducational liberal arts colleges, four coeducational teachers' colleges, and four liberal arts colleges for women only—indicated that the existing organizations did not serve a sufficiently large number of students (411, 1939). The kinds of organizations and percentages of women students belonging were as follows: (411: 275, 1939):

Collegiate Institution	Number of Organizations		Percentage Belonging
	National	Local	
Coeducational.....	36	44	38
Women's.....	31	59	80
Teachers' Colleges....	12	26	40
Total.....	79	129	52

It will be noted that only about half of the students in the colleges studied belonged to any campus club. Of the 2,756 students who were members of some organization, approximately 14 per cent belonged to more than three organizations, and only 53 girls held as many as two offices.

A recent study (626, 1940) of student participation in a coeducational college having, in the opinion of many, a superior quality of student life, is worthy of detailed attention. The data were collected for the college year 1937-38.

The 110 different activities functioning during that year fell into the following categories:

Athletic.....	14 for men; 3 for women
Musical.....	11
Official.....	10
Departmental.....	6
Student-faculty committees..	6
Public affairs.....	4
Literary.....	4
Publications.....	3
Religious.....	3
Dramatic.....	2

Thirty-nine were house organizations, sixteen for men and twenty-three for women, and five were classified as miscellaneous.

Degree of participation was rated on a four-point scale:

O = officership or committee chairmanship

A = committee membership or other major special activity

M = minor special activity or merely membership in an activity which in itself involved active participation, such as a glee club

x = membership without special activity in an organization in which active participation was not involved

Each student was rated according to this scale, and assigned only one rating—the highest he deserved. The following figures (626:652, 1940) show an unusually high amount of participation in the student body as a whole:

Students.....	1584
Participants.....	1390
Non-participants.....	194
Total participations.....	3893
O ratings.....	442
A ratings.....	678
M ratings.....	1430
x ratings.....	1343

The percentage of participants was practically constant among the four classes, but was greater for women than for men, the ratio being about three to two. Further analysis of the data showed "a good general distribution of responsibility and opportunity. . . . There were no cases of extraordinary pyramiding of officerships" (626:653, 1940).

Results from a questionnaire answered by 956 sophomores in the study by the Commission on the Relation of Schools and Colleges of the Progressive Education Association (517, 1941) showed the following percentages of participation in different types of activities:

	Per Cent
Informal sports.....	57
Intramural sports.....	21
Intercollegiate sports.....	15
Social service and religious groups.....	25
Fraternities and social clubs.....	20
Special interest groups such as outing and hobby clubs.....	20
Art, literary, and dramatic societies.....	18
Music groups.....	15
Student government.....	15
Publications.....	13
Departmental clubs.....	10
Discussion groups.....	9
Political and propaganda groups.....	6
Participation in no clubs.....	16

(517:210-11,
1941)

Students' participation in specific activities depends a great deal on the program offered. For example, the much greater interest expressed by women students in religious activities in the university than in the high school is probably due to difference in the quality of the religious groups and the promotion of them on the two levels.

2. PATTERNS OF PARTICIPATION

An advance over the common tabulation of the frequency of single items was represented by Smith (531, 1936), who studied combinations or patterns of extra-curriculum activities engaged in by 512 students in six high schools and in the University of Minnesota. The data were obtained from the high school and the university yearbooks. The following is a summary of the main patterns:

<i>High School</i>	<i>University</i>
Boys in athletics, dramatics, and publications	Athletics and social activities and student government
Girls in athletics, social activities, and semi-curricular organizations	Athletics and social and religious activities
Boys in semi-curricular activities and every other type of activity except music	Semi-curricular and social groups and publications, or semi-curricular alone
Girls in semi-curricular activities and social groups and athletics	Semi-curricular and religious groups and social activities
Boys in dramatics and all other types of activities	Dramatics and social activities and semi-curricular organizations
Girls in dramatics and social clubs and athletics	Dramatics and social clubs and religious organizations
Boys in music and other activities	Music and social organizations
Girls in music and social and athletic activities	Music and religious and social activities
Boys in religious groups and publications and semi-curricular activities	Religious groups and social activities
Girls in religious groups and social clubs, publications and athletics	Religious groups and social and semi-curricular organizations
Boys engaged in publications and in other activities	Publications and social groups
Girls engaged in publications and in social groups and athletics	Publications and social and religious groups
Boys participating in student government and all other types of activity, especially publications	Student government and social groups

Girls in student government and social activities Student government and religious groups

This analysis of students' participation in extra-curriculum activities shows, in general, a breadth of interest in both high school and university. Rarely do students specialize in a single form of activity. Social organizations in the university included among their members individuals participating in every other type of activity. The only examples of limited participation were in the case of university men engaged in semi-curricular activities and of girls in high school participating somewhat exclusively in social activities.

The individual student's activity load varies from institution to institution. At the University of Minnesota in 1924-25 (98, 1929) 40 per cent of the students were active in two or more organizations. Almost 5 per cent were active in five or more. At Alabama College (541, 1938) slightly more than one-third belonged to one departmental club, and about two-fifths belonged to two or more clubs. Fifteen students belonged to six or more clubs. The proportion holding office in only one club was 70 per cent of the office holders.

3. FACTORS RELATING TO PARTICIPATION

Few attempts have been made to find out why students do or do not engage in group activities. From an extensive questionnaire, introduced under favorable auspices but eliciting replies from only 27 per cent of the students to whom it was distributed, Brown (64, 1937) obtained information on reasons for as well as on extent of student participation in group activities of the University of Minnesota. The factors most frequently associated with few social contacts were limited education and income of parents, living at a distance from the campus, and necessity for self-support. With the exception of members of fraternities and sororities, the students replying to the questionnaire participated less in social affairs in college than in high school, and increasingly less each year of college. The fraternity members presented an entirely different pattern from that common to the rest of the group replying to the questionnaire.

Insofar as the situation reported by 27 per cent of the students in this one university is fairly typical of other student bodies it would be desirable to modify the social program in several ways. A less expensive program should be provided in which smaller affairs are substituted for larger ones and there is more opportunity for faculty-student contacts. More effective counseling, which would discover and help students living restricted social lives, and a counseling system better integrated with the social program should be developed.

Interviews with individual students would doubtless have revealed other reasons for not engaging in campus activities. Some students may be deterred by timidity; others by possessive parents who discourage their children from engaging in any aspect of college life that would make the boy or girl more independent of family ties. Similarly, exclusive friendship on the campus would tend to withdraw some students from group life.

In high school likewise family background may deter certain students from engaging in activities that would be beneficial to them. An analysis of participation in high school student activities by socio-economic and racial groups (257, 1931) showed that the largest percentage of nonparticipation (40 to 50 per cent) was among the Polish and Italian groups and among those students whose parents were employed at common labor or in transportation services. A more recent study (123, 1940) showed more widespread participation among different socio-economic groups. Children of salesmen and clerks were highest in participation, those of professions and unskilled labor next, and those of unskilled trades, the unemployed, and farmers lowest. It is usually the boys and girls from the lower socio-economic groups who would profit most by engaging in group activities. They need the friendship, the opportunity to improve their conversation, the exchange of ideas, the fun and sociability of student groups. Other students, in turn, need their contributions in carrying out enterprises of common concern to the school and community. In many situations, however, students of all socio-economic levels and racial backgrounds are drawn into the activity program.

4. CONTINUITY OF PARTICIPATION

The developmental aspect of group activities has received little attention. From elementary school into adult life boys and girls should have opportunities to grow through a progression of group experiences. High school graduates are often disappointed in campus life. They expected to engage in "collegiate" activities and instead found only a repetition of secondary school experiences. The greater maturity of the college freshman as compared with the high school boy and girl make it requisite that activities planned for the college student be distinguished from high school activities in form, or in function, or both.

When the student leaves school, he should experience the same kind of continuity in community groups. Surveys have shown that students who were very active in high school organizations tended to be less active as adults but more active than the persons who were

nonparticipants in high school. The more nearly the school activities resemble adult activities, the more likely the continuity of participation in them as adults. It is difficult, however, to obtain evidence of this relationship. Chapin and Meyhus (98, 1929) at the University of Minnesota reported a definite tendency on the part of alumni to continue participation in activities similar to those in which they had engaged in college.

Chin (103, 1934) attempted to measure the relationships between high school students' out-of-school activities and the subjects they were studying. Although the total number of students from whom questionnaires were obtained was 621, this figure represents only a little more than one-third of the number to whom questionnaires were sent. Accordingly, the results cannot be said to be representative even of the two high schools studied. The following list of leisure activities probably represents a better type of interest than would generally be found:

EXTRA-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES AND THE NUMBER AND PER CENT
OF INDIVIDUALS ENGAGED IN EACH ACTIVITY

<i>Activity</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>
Reading.....	621	100.0
Listening to radio or phonograph.....	559	90.0
Taking part in athletic games and sports.....	443	71.3
Participating in excursions.....	426	68.6
Taking care of animals.....	349	56.2
Taking pictures.....	325	52.3
Going to theater.....	307	49.4
Painting or drawing.....	251	40.4
Making collections.....	230	37.0
Attending concerts or other musical performances.....	229	36.9
Playing musical instruments.....	223	35.9
Visiting zoological or botannical gardens.....	211	34.0
Taking care of plants.....	210	33.8
Designing.....	164	26.4
Visiting museums.....	157	25.3
Visiting art galleries.....	150	24.2
Participating in recreations involving mathematics.....	138	22.2
Visiting industrial plants.....	126	20.3
Performing chemical experiments.....	123	19.8
Making mechanical or electrical devices.....	103	16.6
Participating in musical performances.....	100	16.1
Amateur acting.....	100	16.1
Visiting art exhibitions.....	96	15.6
Developing films.....	79	12.7
Working with plaster.....	55	8.9

(103:10-11, 1934)

In studying students' participation in group activities few investigators have been concerned with the amount of time spent, the degree of responsibility involved, the quality of performance, and the beneficial or detrimental influence on individual students. The

same number of memberships and offices held may be excessive for one student and below the optimum for another. Moreover, any specific office may vary greatly in different institutions. The student council president may expend more time, effort, and ability and derive much more value from the experience in one school than in another. Thus the qualitative aspects of student participation must be ascertained before interpretation of figures or extent of membership and office holding is possible.

D. GROUP ACTIVITIES IN SECONDARY SCHOOL

Inadequate as surveys are on the qualitative side, they frequently do present information on theory and practices of organization, administration, and supervision. Much of the detailed reports has already been summarized or incorporated into books on extra-curriculum activities (212, 1931; 323, 1926; 373, 1938; 375, 1937; 500, 1930). Accordingly, only a few examples of surveys will be reviewed in this chapter.

The first programs reported emphasized faculty planning and training in citizenship. Representative of the better type program, initiated around 1928, is the one described by Roemer (492, 1928). The plan included an educational program to acquaint faculty and parents with the need for and methods of group activities. Faculty meetings and parent-teacher association meetings were held for this purpose; books on extra-curriculum activities were purchased and placed in the high school library; and a committee began to work out details of the program. Since that time, unfortunately many programs of extra-curriculum activities have been launched without this essential preliminary education of everyone concerned.

In the more recent surveys and descriptions a larger amount of student initiative in the administration of the student activity program is represented. This tendency is illustrated by the effort made at Wells High School, Chicago (451, 1938), to apply certain basic principles. Provision was made for the "well-rounded development of students" by offering service, special interest, and social activities, and encouraging students to engage in all three types of activities insofar as their diary records showed the need for such experience. Democratic principles were recognized by encouraging student initiative in selecting and managing their activities. Integration of the curriculum and the extra-curriculum was promoted by incorporating many activities such as dramatics and publications into the regular curriculum and helping the students to realize that the extra-curriculum is an essential part of the educational program. The most

important emphasis from the standpoint of continuity of recreational interest was that on becoming acquainted with and using recreational agencies in the community.

In the Detroit schools (268, 1933) the intermediate schools as well as the high schools in 1933 appeared to be well launched on a program of voluntary social service and personal interest groups. Attention was called to the fact that limitations placed on membership were not narrowly restrictive and that dues were nonprohibitive in amount.

The group activities in University High School, Oakland, California, illustrate best practice so admirably that a detailed description of the program is justified at this point. More than twenty references supply this information. From these references have been extracted the most significant details relating to the development of the program.

The initial stage, beginning with the opening of the school in 1914, was characterized by informality, dearth of activities, and faculty control.

In early years student-body government was of the simplest order; representatives of home rooms met at the lunch hour with their president, and transacted their business, sandwich in hand. Students assumed little responsibility in the conduct of the school's affairs. Finances within the school were crudely organized, with too much responsibility placed on the students for the collection of money and of accounts keeping. There were no clubs, little class organization. The first student publication "The Cub" made its debut in mimeographed sheets. For nine years there was no auditorium (117:118, 1934).

Assemblies and rallies were held in the school yard, in borrowed auditoriums, or in a neighborhood church.

During the period from 1914 to 1922 important developments took place. The number of activities increased. By 1922 the student body government had been reorganized and finances were carefully controlled and audited. The annual had a tradition and a substantial budget for the business manager to worry over. A weekly paper, printed at the Vocation High School, was established, and a junior high school paper was published twice a semester. To these activities could be added a short list of clubs and organizations.

With the appointment of a dean of boys and a dean of girls in 1922 more active steps were taken in building a social program and in developing personnel work in the school. Counselors were first appointed in 1924. They established a sounder counseling base for group activities, and worked closely with the dean of girls, a vice-

principal in charge of guidance in the broadest sense. It was at this time that Brown made the following statement of philosophy:

The activities program in a school is an outgrowth of the fundamental interests of boys and girls in the people and experiences of life which surround them. . . . Students will find ways of working together on problems and plans in which they are interested. . . . Every activity must justify itself on the ground that it meets a need of the students, that it sets standards toward which they will struggle but which are possible of attainment (69:163-164, 1924).

From 1924 to the present time other important trends in the development of the program were reported. One trend, continued from the earliest periods is indicated by the fact that the number of organizations increased until from thirty-five to fifty different activities were functioning. Most influential were the student council, the Girls' League, the Boys' League, service organizations, and interest groups. The student council is a policy-directing body which studies school activities in the light of their value to the school as a whole. Its aim is to make changes and adopt plans for the good of the entire group. For efficiency every detail of student control would be handled by the faculty, but such an allocation of authority has no place in education for democracy. Civic and character objectives of education can be realized only when students share in the making and enforcing of necessary regulations. The school motto epitomizes the spirit and policy of the program: "The progress of all through all under the leadership of the wisest and best."

The Girls' League has developed a program including an important share in the planning and conduct of assemblies; several special features such as a Vocation Day, Girls' Day, and others different each year; orientation of new students; entertainments to raise money; and social events. The Boys' League engages in a somewhat similar program but not as extensively or enthusiastically as the Girls' League.

The service clubs have extended their work to orphanages, a settlement house, hospitals, and other agencies outside the school. In the school, also, members of these clubs perform active services.

Interest groups include some having a long history as well as others which are more transient in nature. All have arisen out of the recreational interests of boys and girls. Many are cultural in their influence.

A second trend is the passing of some of the extra-curriculum activities into the curriculum. This movement has been furthered by changes in state law and by the expansion of time and effort de-

voted to student activities. School publications, choruses, orchestra, band, and dramatics have become part of the school curriculum. School time is scheduled for student activities. After much experimentation the last period of the day, twenty-five minutes in length, on Monday and Tuesday, was finally reserved for extra-curriculum activities.

A third trend is toward more and more student responsibility. In council meetings students are encouraged to study their problems and to make decisions. Faculty advisers are present but they are expected to keep in the background and to act in an advisory capacity only. The school assemblies are an outstanding example of the trend toward student freedom with responsibility. Attendance was not always optional. Early in the school's history assemblies were planned by the faculty. Gradually students were given more responsibility. By 1923 there was a student assembly committee. Not until 1930 was attendance made voluntary. By that time the students had learned to make choices and to take responsibility for them. During recent years attendance at the assemblies has been optional and the assemblies are planned, supervised, conducted, and controlled by students. The Student Assembly Committee is composed of the president of the student body, presidents of Boys' and Girls' Leagues, five appointed members, and a faculty adviser. The committee welcomes requests from groups desiring to participate, and makes a semester assembly calendar. The machinery of assembly programs has been meticulously built: letters are planned a month ahead; detailed plans for each assembly are submitted two weeks ahead; the program is publicized in the daily bulletin and on the bulletin board; three sets of instructions are given to the stage crew three days before the assembly; estimates of time for each feature of the program are made; reception and transportation of speakers are arranged and thank-you letters sent. After each assembly a "post-mortem" is held to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of that particular program. The president of the council or a student representative of the organization sponsoring the event presides at all assemblies. Teachers are on the platform only when invited by the students. Attendance is optional. The students may go or not go, but they must stay on the school campus. Control of conduct is in the hands of students. These features make assemblies more like an adult situation, demanding choice. Such a program has the advantages of using the diverse interests of students, giving recognition to various groups, and uniting the student body. Experience has taught that the degree of interest in-

herent in the program, the audience's attitude, and smooth running insure success (71, 1931; 119, 1924).

Another example of the trend toward increasing student responsibility may be found in the financing of the student activity program (115, 1926). Estimates of the needs of various organizations are presented to the treasurer appointed by the student council, at the end of the school term, by the presidents of each group. The budget committee is composed of the treasurer, five students appointed by the treasurer, and a faculty adviser. The budget is presented and explained to the student council at a meeting open to all who have made requests for appropriations. After due consideration and discussion, the budget is passed. Financial accounts are audited and checked by the school office.

The unwritten law of the school prevents one person from holding more than one office at a time, though he may work on many committees. This provides a greater number of leadership opportunities, and also requires intelligent "followship," both of which qualities are essential for adult life in a democracy.

To summarize, the social program of the University High School is a dynamic one. Changes are made as conditions warrant or indicate a need for them. The program is guided, and interested faculty sponsors are appointed for each group. However, the program is an expression of student interest. No one is required to belong to a club, but everything possible is done to cater to all students' interests. Individuals are urged to enter the activities in the light of their own personal needs for development. The counselors study individuals in the group, try to adjust the pupil to the school, and encourage him to develop further his potentialities, always seeing the student in the light of his whole-day program. Extra-curriculum activities offer a chance for leadership, growth, and development, each semester carrying the student to more complex and challenging problems and achievements (66, 1929; 284, 1935).

The most extensive survey of high school students' opinion of group activities was reported by Eells (166, 1938). More than 17,000 students in 198 representative secondary schools contributed answers to four simple questions. In answer to the question: "What do you think about the number of pupil activities available to you in your school?" two-thirds of the entire group felt that the number was about right; 30 per cent thought there were not enough activities. Two-fifths of the students felt that their participation had been insufficient but about three-quarters said that it had been of considerable value, the brighter students giving a more favorable rating

than those of low intelligence. In all these respects the responses of private school students were more favorable than those of public school students. Of the activities reported as giving the greatest satisfaction, dramatics was far more popular than any other activity except athletics. Glee club, band, dances, debating, orchestra, and parties were next in order of frequency. Of the games, basketball and football—two activities seldom engaged in after leaving school—were most frequently mentioned as giving greatest satisfaction. The results of this survey of opinion indicate the need for educators to share with the students their philosophy and bases for the evaluation of group activities.

Many secondary schools throughout the country fall short of the best program possible for them. A survey of the extra-curriculum in the public high schools of Chicago (621, 1937) emphasized the following deficiencies: the lack of a constructive program, an attitude of opportunism, unbalanced distribution of departmental clubs, underdevelopment of special interest clubs, lack of guidance, routine rather than educative handling of finances, unfamiliarity of teachers with the program, and lack of policy based on study of the total situation. The recommendation was made that administrative attention to the extra-curriculum and proper organization of it, with special efforts to appeal to students, would result in more continuous interest and participation than the present *laissez-faire* policy.

As in an earlier Chicago survey, the schools having a former junior high school principal as administrative head showed a ratio of one activity per eighty students, offered more personal guidance, discussed the extra-curriculum frequently in faculty meetings, required full reports from sponsors, and secured more extensive student participation based on genuine interest than the technical schools or the other high schools.

E. GROUP ACTIVITIES IN THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

In junior colleges in which a traditional two-year university curriculum is offered, a heavy responsibility falls upon the student activities to fulfill the unique functions of the junior college and to meet the students' needs. In the review by Wilkins and Wilkins (627, 1939) the place of student activities in the junior college is briefly described and evaluated. The authors also pointed out that athletic activities in the junior college occupy a minor place in actual programs, though not in students' interests. Because of the inability of the junior college to produce teams that can compete successfully for public interest with the high schools, the junior college is in a

position to develop an intramural program designed to meet the needs of all the students.

Surveys have shown that the junior college now offers wide opportunities for student activities, and junior college students, taking advantage of these opportunities, join and hold office in more activities than university students in the same years. A survey of forty-five junior colleges, reported by Parr and Cummins (442, 1939), gives some subjective data on a number of aspects of student activities. The administrators who answered the questionnaire were agreed as to the need of co-ordination and the general values of student activities in contributing to well-rounded living. With respect to specific procedures, there was lack of agreement. Although the large majority were of the opinion that scholarship is improved by participation in student activities, almost as many were inconsistently in favor of limiting membership by a scholarship requirement.

The persistence of interest in student activities on the part of junior college transfers was studied by Gilbert (220, 1931). Data were obtained from 276 juniors and seniors enrolled at the University of California, 111 of whom had transferred from California junior colleges at the beginning of the junior year, and 165 of whom had entered the university directly from high school. It was found that the junior college transfer showed a marked decrease, after entrance to the university, both in his total number of extra-curriculum activities and in office holding during the junior and senior years. He never succeeded in gaining an equal footing with the students entering the university directly from high school.

Problems of fostering student activities in 104 junior colleges were studied by Kefauver and Bullard (311, 1931). Among the general problems mentioned were the rapid turnover of students, home ties and responsibilities, immaturity of students, and inappropriateness of high school types of activities to the junior college. In three-fourths of the institutions studied sponsors were chosen by the students. More than half of these junior colleges reported that, in the selection of teachers, interest and capacity for sponsoring student activities were considered.

F. GROUP ACTIVITIES IN TEACHERS' COLLEGES

Since the early attempts (409, 15-23, 1929) to study the background and activities of students in teachers' colleges, several extensive surveys of group activities in teachers' colleges have been reported. Briggs (60, 1938) obtained data from one hundred state

teachers' colleges in the major geographical areas of the United States. The number and distribution of activities, according to size of enrollment, were as follows:

	Enrollment Below 750	750-1249	1250-1749	1750-up	Total
No. of schools.....	34	39	15	12	100
Lowest no. of activities..	20	23	34	36	20
Q1.....	28.6	33.7	46.4	42.0	34.8
Median.....	37.2	42.4	53.8	49.5	42.6
Q3.....	43.2	50.5	61.1	67.0	52.0
Highest no. of activities.	59	83	68	125	125

The relationship between size of school and number of activities is not so large as might be expected. In a large institution more small interest groups are needed to provide group experiences for all the students. Further analysis of the data shows the largest number of organizations to be those concerned with school control, departmental clubs, music, school activities, athletics, and honorary status. Publications, forensics, and religious organizations were less numerous. The distribution of activities is more specifically indicated by the following average figures:

Average number of activities per institution.....	44.8
Departmental clubs.....	9.4
School control.....	5.4
Social organizations.....	5.4
Athletic activities.....	5.0
Music.....	4.6
Miscellaneous.....	4.0
Honorary.....	3.8
Student publications.....	2.4
Religious.....	2.2
Forensics.....	2.2

In all, 386 different extra-class activities existed in the state teachers' colleges studied.

In a still more recent survey of student personnel work in 151 institutions engaged in teacher education (158, 1940) information was obtained about the kinds of activities existing and about certain policies with respect to student participation in extra-curriculum activities. It will be noted from Table I that musical organizations, dramatic clubs, and intramural athletics were the most popular of the student activities in these institutions. Activities which are or have been prominent in other institutions—notably, literary societies and religious organizations—are not widely represented. Other activi-

GROUP ACTIVITIES

ties which rank low are the interest groups. These, although appealing to only a small number of students in a given institution, should be more generally introduced in institutions which have the responsibility of preparing teachers to do effective group work.

TABLE I

FREQUENCY WITH WHICH VARIOUS EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES ARE FOUND IN 149 INSTITUTIONS (158: 47, 1940)

Activity	Number of Schools			All Institutions	Rank
	Large	Medium	Small		
1	2	3	4	5	6
Art clubs.....	44	36	26	106	13
Athletics (intercollegiate)	51	51	31	133	7
Athletics (intramural).....	51	53	39	143	3
Child-study activities.....	32	22	15	69	22
Concerts.....	47	45	30	122	9
Dancing (social).....	51	52	35	138	5
Dancing (aesthetic).....	42	27	16	84	18
Debating.....	43	41	21	105	14
Dramatic clubs.....	53	53	38	144	2
Drama study clubs.....	19	12	6	37	25
Forums.....	36	37	17	90	16.5
Fraternities (social).....	35	27	13	75	21
Honor societies.....	49	43	18	110	12
International relations societies, . . .	35	33	22	90	16.5
Lecture series.....	42	39	22	103	15
Literary societies.....	33	30	15	78	19.5
Musical organizations (vocal).....	53	55	39	147	1
Musical organizations (instrumental)	52	54	31	137	6
Clubs.....	44	46	26	116	11
Publications (student).....	51	55	35	141	4
Press clubs.....	25	16	12	53	23
Sororities (social).....	36	28	14	78	19.5
Student-government boards.....	46	47	36	129	8
Subject matter clubs (French, etc.).	48	43	30	121	10
Theater.....	23	13	6	42	24
Religious organizations.....	5	5	2	12	26
Y.W.C.A.....	6	4	..	10	27
Y.M.C.A.....	5	3	..	8	28
Camera clubs.....	..	3	1	4	29
Creative writing.....	2	..	1	3	30
Others ^a	16	13	16	45	..

^a Includes: Co-operative stores; Future Teachers of America; Future Farmers of America; Four-H; Camp Fire Girls; Service organizations; Dormitory organizations; Graduate Club; Women's League; Off-Campus Women; Men's Union; Social Service Club; Engineer's Club; Boy Scout Training Club; Travel Club; The Commuters; Flying Club; Hiking Club; Outing Club; Radio Club; Story League; Speakers' Club; Book Club; and the Folk-lore and Custom's Club.

SURVEYS AND DESCRIPTIONS

With respect to basis of student participation, these institutions report diverse policies. Thirty put no restriction on student participation, almost twice as many (fifty-five) used the point system to limit participation, and seventy-nine restricted participation if academic work were unsatisfactory. Twenty-five went to the other extreme of requiring every student to participate in some activity.

With respect to administrative controls, the majority of 149 institutions required approval of all activities and the auditing of activity funds by the college administration. Practically all these institutions required that each activity have a faculty adviser. They were, however, about equally divided in their policy of choosing the adviser, slightly more than one third being chosen by students, a little less than one-third appointed by the college administration, and the rest by either of these two with the approval of the other (158:45-46, 1940). Obviously modification of these policies is desirable if prospective teachers are to obtain the maximum educational and professional value from their college activities.

The opinions of alumni regarding the values of extra-curriculum activities are overwhelmingly favorable. One of the most extensive follow-up studies dealing with impressions of extra-curriculum activities in retrospect was reported by Briggs (59, 1938). The information was gathered by personal interviews with 3,939 students in nineteen state teachers' colleges in Illinois, Kentucky, Missouri, Arkansas, Nebraska, Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas. In subjects such as home economics, agriculture, and physical education, one-third or more of the alumni felt that there was considerably "less value" in extra-curriculum activities than in curricular activities, whereas in most other subjects their extra-curriculum activities seemed to them in retrospect of "more value" than curricular activities. Perhaps more significant is the summary statement that 91 per cent of those who participated in the academic extra-curriculum activities and 80 per cent of those who participated in athletics valued them highly. It would have been more illuminating if the bases of evaluation had been described. "Of more value" probably involved quite different factors from one subject to another.

G. GROUP ACTIVITIES IN LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

In one of the earliest surveys (600, 1929) of student activities in colleges governmental groups, departmental organizations, social clubs, honorary societies, and religious organizations were present on the campuses but they appeared to have "just grown." Each

organization was a unit within itself and had only slight, if any, relation to other student activities. No individual or committee was delegated to co-ordinate the student activity program or to develop policies in a manner comparable to that employed with respect to the academic curriculum.

A recent survey (233, 1939) of forty-two junior colleges, thirty-eight publicly controlled teachers' colleges, 189 liberal arts colleges, and thirteen universities accredited by the North Central Association deserves a detailed summary. From the institutions was elicited information about official institutional attitudes toward student organizations, financial support of these activities, student membership on administrative boards and committees, advisory and supervisory functions, scope of organizations, and participation by the students. Data on each of these topics will be briefly summarized.

More than 95 per cent of the institutions required that all existing student organizations be officially recognized and that new organizations secure such approval. The reasons for denying official approval included: conflict with institutional objectives, duplication of already established organizations and activities, and unworthy purpose or failure to fulfill any specific need.

The amount of financial support received by the 83 per cent of the institutions that charged fees covered a range from \$1.00 to \$50.00. The average for the entire 235 institutions was \$14.62. The average student activity fee of privately controlled liberal arts colleges was approximately twice as much as that of the publicly controlled junior colleges.

Students were reported to be members of administrative boards and committees in 82 per cent of the institutions. In this respect the universities stood highest.

Practically all accredited institutions provided supervision of student activities. "Approximately 88 per cent require a faculty sponsor for student organizations" (233:203, 1939).

Half of the institutions had fraternities, and almost three-fourths had regular chapel exercises. Aside from chapel activities, community churches provided student programs in three-fourths of the institutions.

The percentage of participation was higher in this group of institutions than in those included in other surveys. Thirty-nine institutions reported 100 per cent participation and the average is 84 per cent.

The six most commonly reported objectives were:

1. to follow intellectual interests informally.
2. to acquire appreciation in the fine arts.

3. to develop social refinement.
4. to enjoy physical recreation.
5. to participate in religious activities.
6. to develop qualities of leadership.

The point system was employed to control student participation in 42 per cent of the institutions. These point systems were most frequently formulated by the student council, with or without the guidance of administrative officers. In view of the claim that participation in student activities stimulates scholarship, it is surprising that three-fourths had a scholastic requirement for non-athletic activities and 86 per cent had this requirement for athletic eligibility.

This recent survey shows wide variation among institutions of higher learning with respect to their group-activity program. If this is a period of transition, the time is ripe for readjustment with the emergence of a more educationally sound and coherent program.

H. TRENDS IN GROUP ACTIVITIES

Trends in campus activities are suggested by Chapin's review of investigations (97, 1931). These changes may be summarized as follows:

The average number of extra-curriculum activities has increased. The highest mortality appears to be among music and literary societies, publications, oratory, debate, and dramatics; the lowest mortality among sororities, fraternities, honor societies, religious organizations, and student government. Survival is greatest among organizations that have national ties, strong traditions, and, in some cases, centralized control. Chapin is of the opinion that these changes in the student activities in colleges reflect social changes which have paralleled the more obvious changes in the economic and industrial order, especially an increase in the number and complexity of remote or derivative groups.

More specific data on the persistence of certain types of activities reported by Mehus (395, 1932) reinforce Chapin's generalizations. Since 1887, 533 organizations had come into existence at the University of Michigan, and 233, or 41.1 per cent, had ceased to function. At Wittenberg 177 organizations developed since 1891 and 97, or 54.8 per cent, had been discontinued. The most permanent type of organization was that supported by national organizations or which was a part of the college or university organization—fraternities, sororities, honor societies, and the like. The next most permanent group included the local organizations that received faculty

support—oratory, debate, dramatics, and the like. The least permanent organizations were purely local ones such as literary and musical societies.

Somewhat different trends in secondary school were noted by Roemer (493, 1933). Foremost of these was the incorporation of extra-curriculum activities as an intrinsic part of a total well-balanced program of education. This means that the informal groups are finding a place in the daily schedule and are becoming "inter-curriculum" in place of "extra-curriculum." Roemer felt that improvement was being made along several important lines: better records and reports of activities, improvement in the handling of finances, more progression in activities, and a growing demand for specific preparation of teachers for their group-work responsibilities. Equally fundamental are the attempts to measure the outcomes of student activities which are still to a large extent in the realm of wished-for objectives rather than actualities.

I. CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

Enough illustrations have been given to show that surveys have become descriptive and interpretive as well as quantitative. An excellent survey combines quantitative data with descriptions of procedures; it also includes interpretation and recommendations. Accordingly, valuable information about patterns of student participation, factors relating to participation, and continuity and progression in group experience has been obtained.

Because of lack of uniformity in collecting and reporting data, it is difficult to make any comparisons or to trace definite trends. In addition to trends suggested on the preceding pages, several emphases may be mentioned. One of these emphases is on making co-operation a method rather than merely an ideal. In institutions in which administrators, teachers, parents, and students have developed the group-activity program, greater vitality and interest has ensued. Another emphasis is on the "wholeness" of the educational experience. Even though many of the informal activities are still, and probably should be, outside the academic curriculum as it is now conceived, they are an intrinsic part of the student's education. The third emphasis which is not found in the surveys and descriptions is one that should be carefully considered by group leaders. As group technics are developed, there is a danger of using them to trick students into doing what we want them to do. Rather our technics should be used openly and frankly with students so that they too will be aware of the results which should be obtained from group activities.

J. RESEARCH NEEDED

It has already been pointed out that surveys of general practice in a number of institutions are not so rewarding as self-survey in each individual school and college. For this purpose a method should be developed by which any institution may evaluate its group work in the light of its educational objectives, its faculty, its facilities, and its community contacts. Quantitative data on number and kinds of clubs and members and officers would of course be obtained. But more significant would be the case studies already mentioned, of individual students made over a period of years and synchronized with detailed records of the group activities available during the same period. To be sure, research on the influence of group activities upon the personality of students is exceedingly difficult because these activities are part of a complex whole and their impact cannot easily be differentiated from that of maturation and other factors in school or college life.

Within the last few years research on group activities has progressed from mere enumeration and description of extra-curriculum activities to a study of the process of psychological and social interaction within a group. If we can first accurately describe these relationships, we shall later be able to learn how they have developed and how they may be modified. More and more, research will be concerned with a study of processes rather than with a study of end results only, and with a study of interpersonal relationships as influenced by specific situations and procedures rather than with a study of the isolated individual.

CHAPTER IV

POLICY-MAKING AND GOVERNING ORGANIZATIONS

ALTHOUGH the majority of references cited deal with student activities as a whole, considerable attention has also been given to specific kinds of organizations and events. It is these references which will be summarized in this and following chapters which will present such information as is available about the special values, forms, and problems of each type of activity.

Potentially, the major influence of group work is exerted through these organized groups, especially when they command the loyalties of the members and are not considered tools of the faculty for promoting narrow institutional objectives. The range, of course, includes all kinds—clubs that are a dynamic influence for good, those whose functioning is so perfunctory as to be almost inert, and those which exert a detrimental influence on the development of students and of the institution.

A. CLASSIFICATION OF GROUP ACTIVITIES

Group activities in college and secondary school may be classified under the following heads:

1. Policy-making and governing organizations—student councils and groups co-operating in school government or in dormitory control; class organizations.
2. Service organizations—including services to the community as well as to the school.
3. Social and recreational activities—social groups and events of all kinds not covered in the other headings.
4. Sororities and fraternities.
5. Aesthetic expression groups—music, art, drama, and literature.
6. Religious activities—Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., church work, discussion groups, student chapel.
7. Departmental or academic interest clubs—including honor societies, forums, debates, discussions on current issues, and publications.
8. Physical activities—athletics, handwork, hobbies of a manual nature, and group activities relating to health.

The items in this classification are not mutually exclusive. Every group, for example, has some social value and any situation may be an aesthetic or religious experience for individual students. Every group activity in college and secondary schools initiates influences that spread in ever-widening circles. Attitudes modified, competencies developed, knowledge acquired in student activities may be carried over into the family, into vocational experiences, community associations, and even into national and international relationships.

B. POLICY-MAKING AND GOVERNING ORGANIZATIONS

Although students unconsciously change school policies through the very impact of their ability or lack of ability, interests, and needs, they become articulate in this respect through various forms of co-operation in government. Such co-operation may be limited to a residence group or it may involve the entire student body; it may be frankly advisory or have genuine power to make certain important decisions affecting the life of the school. The student groups concerned with co-operation in the government of the school are especially rich in social and civic potentialities.

Probably more controversy has arisen concerning student co-operation in government than over any other student organization. While agreeing that there are "areas in which students may not actually formulate policies," Jarvie is convinced that they "should at least participate in the *discussion* of all policies" (290:224, 1938). It is also important that students understand the areas in which they may formulate policies and those in which they are limited to discussion of policy. As an illustration of an area in which students have moved from initiation to formulation, Jarvie described the report on "Assemblies" submitted by representatives of the student body. This report was planned and developed by the students themselves and served as the basis for assemblies initiated and completely directed by the students. Effective policy-making involves sensitivity to personal and institutional problems, opportunities to formulate policies with respect to student activities, and an attitude of co-operation, not domination, on the part of the faculty.

I. FORMS OF CONTROL

Government by fellow students is only one of the controlling influences in student behavior. Several other forms of control regulate life in a school or college. The most important form of control is that which resides within the individual student, commonly called *conscience*. Conscience, as we usually understand it, represents the

interiorization of external authority. Bergson (36, 1935) emphasized the hereditary aspect of this sense of personal obligation, which he called "the moral imperative"—"We must because we must." Adam Smith designated it as "the man within the breast." In psychoanalytic literature the concept reappears as the "super-ego."

To this compulsive inner imperative some philosophers would add the element of intelligence, which gives man a measure of self-dependence. Reason, we should like to believe, enables him to take the initiative in certain situations rather than be compelled by his past in its entirety to follow a certain course of action.

In exceptional cases another element enters into a person's inner control. This dynamic element is a love for humanity that goes beyond the group. It is the essence of religion, and is manifested in prophets, mystics, and a few other rare souls.

Another form of control resides in society, or, more specifically, in teachers and school officials, public opinion among students, family as well as community opinion, religious sanctions, governmental regulations, books, movies, and radio. This group control may be represented in unwritten customs and traditions. These are rules imposed by the pressure of social habits, and arise out of the structure of the group. Custom as such is respected. Equally important, in an educational institution, is the control that results from intense group feeling, usually called "school spirit."

More clearly defined are the rules made by the students themselves. These rules may be enforced by the administration, but arise out of student interest and initiative. They are reformulated by every new group of students, not made once and for all time. "Morality, insofar as it finds expression in the ideas of any social group, is always in the making" (30:459, 1939). At the authoritarian end of the scale are rules and regulations made by administrative officers and enforced either by officers or by students.

The aim of education in a democracy is gradually to replace superficial, automatic obedience to authority with controls from within. Such progression of experience is in line with what we know about the moral development of children. The French psychologist, Piaget, in the groups of children he studied, found the shift from the idea of law as something imposed from without to the idea of law as something which members of the group help to create and enforce, taking place before high school age. Thus even junior high school children should participate in the making and enforcing of rules and regulations essential for living in the school community.

In any society or school there must be government, control, direc-

tion, discipline. The question is whether this control shall be exercised arbitrarily or co-operatively. The aim is individual self-government, self-control, self-direction, self-discipline, and a personal sense of responsibility. The purpose of student co-operation in government is not to make life easier for teachers, but to develop in students the qualities mentioned in the preceding sentence.

Democracy does not imply lack of leadership. The group leader cannot simply turn students loose to work out their own salvation. They need resources in the form of expert information and questions which direct their attention to points of view which they should consider.

Nor does democracy imply lack of discipline. The most rigorous disciplinarian is not a person, but a life situation. As adults we are not subject to some person who will punish us if we do not fulfill our obligations. Rather we are disciplined by a task to be accomplished, a service to be rendered, a person who needs our help. Should not children, then, gradually become accustomed to the discipline of life situations, such as, for example, when they work hard on a paper because the group is in need of the information it is to contain, or otherwise fulfill an obligation to the group, once it has been accepted?

2. DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENT CO-OPERATION IN GOVERNMENT

For many centuries students have co-operated in governing their schools, but in recent years the emphasis has changed. The earlier aim was to relieve the masters of details; more recently the aim has been to supply educational experiences of value to the students, out of which will grow increasing self-direction and self-control on their part.

In the medieval universities such as Bologna and Paris, student bodies exercised a greater degree of influence and power than they do in even the most progressive schools today. In modern European institutions before the second World War students were free to choose their courses and professors but did not have the large field of extra-curriculum activities in which to exercise initiative and originality.

In the United States student participation in government has developed of its own impetus and has been directed toward two main problems: the control of conduct and the regulation and supervision of extra-class activities. Developments that have taken place during the last two decades in both secondary school and college will now be briefly traced through descriptive accounts and surveys.

During the decade 1920-30 student co-operation in government

was advocated with enthusiastic optimism. Many articles were written in praise of student co-operation in government, and many procedures for effecting its successful operation were described.

By 1926 the wide interest in student co-operation in government was evidenced by fifty articles relating to this subject and by responses to questionnaires from 191 schools in forty states. The articles were analyzed and the replies on the questionnaire were summarized in an article by Rugg (499, 1926), which may be considered an adequate review of practices up to 1926. That the movement at that time was in the experimental stage was indicated by the fact that nearly one-half of the schools reported that they had been trying student co-operation for three years or less. No uniform qualifications for eligibility or method of choosing the governing body had been worked out. Disciplinary cases were almost invariably handled in co-operation with the faculty. The major objective emphasized at this time was citizenship, with special attention to gaining familiarity with political organizations in which the students will later participate. The values in promoting school work and school spirit and a co-operative spirit between faculty and student were also recognized.

Although the attitudes of the majority of administrators and students were favorable to student co-operation in government, some felt that it was not successful, or only partially so—that it was a pretense at school government, and a waste of time and energy. Even those who were, in general, favorably inclined recognized a number of obstacles to its successful operation:

1. The difficulty of securing efficient and successful student leaders.
2. Lack of co-operation on the part of the faculty.
3. The danger of students' mistaking license for liberty.
4. Lack of sufficient interest and responsibility on the part of all students.
5. Partiality and favoritism on the part of student officers.
6. Objections of students to being disciplined by fellow students and to reporting one another.

Despite these difficulties, the conclusion seemed to be that these obstacles may be overcome by a gradual process of education and that this movement is of great promise for developing personal qualities as well as good citizenship.

In 1928, Frasier and Wrinkle (207, 1928) arrived at certain important generalizations which may be applied to both secondary school and college:

1. That co-operative government is to be preferred to independent student government.
2. That the degree of success of student co-operation in government may be attributed largely to the quality of officers and representatives elected.
3. That continuity of leadership is desirable, especially in such offices as that of business manager.
4. That a college should spend time and energy in developing effective student co-operation in government.

These generalizations, derived from experience with student co-operation in government in teachers' colleges, are concretely illustrated by a descriptive account of the student council at Harvard in 1928, an organization which was very influential in an advisory capacity (227, 1928). The students were glad to be consulted about the formulation of a rule, but were not interested in trying cases nor in enforcing rules through any sort of honor system. They maintained that it was the business of the college to proctor examinations and to decide whether an exception should or should not be made in case of an infraction of rules.

Harvard began the program of student co-operation in government by having occasional conferences; later these were extended into scheduled, informal meetings. The members of the student council were treated like college officers and given inside information. They felt that they were really helping the faculty to run the college. Thus the faculty was getting advice from some of the ablest students in the college. On one occasion the members of the student council were invited to meet the overseers (alumni body) who had come to see the University in action and find out what was wrong with it. After their meeting with the students alone, the overseers reported, "This meeting is the best meeting we ever had and those young men made a remarkable impression."

The student council does most of its work through standing committees, which make significant reports from time to time. Its members and the student body know that no major question of policy which concerns them is likely to be decided without their having a chance to express their opinion on it. Thus in 1928 regulations and requirements were beginning to be regarded as expressions of a mutual understanding, which is largely the outgrowth of conferences.

The decade beginning in 1930 was the heyday of interest in student co-operation in government. It was at the beginning of this decade that Vineyard and Poole (601, 1930) published a small book on the subject. This book presented principles and suggestions for

inaugurating and developing co-operative government in schools, based on questionnaires answered by 390 sponsors and administrators in forty states.

Two surveys published in 1933 indicate the status of student co-operation in government in eighty-seven Iowa high schools (246, 1933) and in eighty-eight teachers' colleges (222, 1933). If the sampling of Iowa schools is representative of high schools in the country as a whole, it indicates a less widespread student co-operation in government than many articles imply. Slightly less than half of the eighty-seven schools reported this form of student organization, and the investigator estimated that a much smaller proportion of high schools in the state actually had an organized form of participation.

The attitudes of both faculty and students replying were favorable. Both recognized values to the students. The students were almost unanimously "sold" on student participation in government, and believed that the loss to academic subjects of the time and attention devoted to this work was offset by the benefits gained through such participation. They did not, however, want to play a purely perfunctory role. One pupil said, "Our student council has had charge of tournaments, hall duty, reading room, etc. If it were called upon to do something of a more important nature, I believe it would function to the best advantage." All but five of the forty-one teachers believed that the program was growing in favor with the teachers.

The proportion of teachers' colleges reporting some form of student co-operation in government was larger than the Iowa high schools studied in the same year. All but twenty-three of the eighty-eight teachers' colleges were employing some form of student co-operation in school government. In 83 per cent of the schools the dean of women had direct contact with the student council, but had the right to vote in only one-third of the cases. In the majority of the teachers' colleges, faculty members also served on the student council.

The school-city plan of student participation in school control may be illustrated by the Bloom Township High School, Chicago Heights (510, 1936). The plan adopted in 1923 is a replica of the city government, including mayor, chief of police, various commissioners, and a legislative department. This form of government has persisted in the school because it "seemingly gives the best civic training." This form of co-operative government has been criticized because of its artificiality and complexity of administration. Its punitive rather than personnel emphasis is likewise subject to criticism.

From 1938 to 1941 a number of descriptions and discussions of student co-operation in the government of high schools appeared (3, 1940; 12, 1938; 23, 1940; 42, 1940; 152, 1939; 195, 1940). These articles emphasized the importance of vital real-life situations as the content of student government activities, extending beyond the school to the community. A unique feature, an "Alumni-Student Council," developed in the Milwaukee Vocational School, is described in another article (398, 1937). These accounts of the objectives, form, and procedures developed in different high schools supply the best substitute for actual observation of student co-operation in government in outstanding high schools.

It must be remembered, however, that these descriptive accounts represent best practice. Surveys of a random sampling of schools indicate the existence, at the present time, of all degrees of educational effectiveness in the student co-operation in government. The most recent report (312, 1941) of student co-operation in high schools was made by Kelley under the auspices of the National Self-Government Committee, Inc. An analysis of 152 constitutions and charters, assembled from all parts of the United States, showed a preponderance of adult purposes which led to the suspicion that adults may have had a large part in their formulation. The welfare of the school, the control of student activities, the arousing of loyalty, the promotion of school spirit, and the promotion of co-operation stand high in the list of purposes. Very few recognized the educational value inherent in the process of student co-operation in school government.

From 1,431 replies to a brief questionnaire on the present status of student co-operation in government in junior high schools, senior high schools, and junior colleges, Kelley learned that this form of student activity was available to 91.9 per cent of the student population represented in the survey. This seems to represent a marked increase over the figures reported a decade earlier. Accurate comparison, however, is impossible because of the variation in schools studied and methods of collecting and treating the data.

The student officers were generally chosen by election at large, although in approximately 10 per cent of the schools they were appointed by the faculty. The restrictions on eligibility to hold office likewise indicate an attempt at faculty control. The restraining hand of the principal is evidenced by the fact that in 86 per cent of the schools everything the student councils do is subject to the veto of the principal. Some of the supplementary comments suggested that

"students may do the things that do not count, but have no hand in anything important" (312:14, 1941).

Almost three fourths of the schools reported that the officers do not function to any significant extent in the classroom. Among the functions frequently mentioned were "managing social affairs, promoting school activities, and serving as monitors"—none of these three governmental at all. The items, planning and managing elections and improving student-faculty relations, were low on the list.

Approximately one-fifth of the schools operated student courts, but only 5 per cent expressed any enthusiasm for them.

The following suggestions for improvement were recommended as goals:

1. To reduce the number of ineligibility rules, making it possible for more students who need the experience to hold office.
2. To end the custom of automatically barring students from holding office because of low scholarship and misconduct.
3. To make the classroom a more vital unit in school government.
4. To increase students' interest in the process of government.
5. To encourage better qualified sponsors and more time for them to spend on their student council work.
6. To abolish the system of monitors.
7. To define areas in which students may exercise full responsibility and areas in which the principal must exercise veto power.
8. To supply a well-equipped, attractive place for student council meetings.

These aspects of the machinery of student co-operation in government, as the investigator suggested, do not determine the quality of its functioning. That can only be ascertained by a study of the human relationships existing in the school. "Throughout this discussion the idea has arisen again and again that almost any school government works where people have genuine concern for one another, and where students are considered as people" (312:19, 1941).

3. THE STUDENT COUNCIL

The embodiment of student co-operation in government is usually the student council. This is an organization which may take any of several forms, elects officers in various ways, and assumes a wide variety of responsibilities.

a. Forms of organization.—The most common form of council in high schools is an organization consisting of one representative elected from each class, homeroom, club, or other guidance unit. Each representative is the go-between for his organization with the

council. He takes to the council questions and points of view suggested by his group, and reports back to them in a dynamic way the discussion and decisions reached in the council. By rotating representatives every six or eight weeks, a number of youngsters are given opportunity to become familiar with the work of the council. If the council is too large, action becomes cumbersome and slow. The officers may be chosen by the school at large, and each is assigned special duties. In this form of organization the council is usually supplemented by the judiciary, in which is invested responsibility for students' conduct.

Somewhat different is the commission form of government, consisting of officers elected at large. These commissioners are responsible for various aspects of school life—welfare, finance, publications, publicity, elections, assemblies, cultural activities, athletics, boys' clubs, and girls' clubs. Many problems of the council requiring action rather than deliberation may be solved by commissions or committees of the council. The committee form of organization relieves the council as a whole from many time-consuming details.

The council form of organization represents the entire student body, through its five elected officers, and the subsidiary organizations through their representatives. The council has jurisdiction over all organized student groups and standing committees. Unity of action is difficult in a form of organization in which so many varied interests are represented.

Highly unified, democratic, and educational is a plan of student-faculty co-operation in government developed at Antioch College, where several unique features were introduced (235, 1940). As both students and faculty belong to the college community, they together elect a community council from both students and faculty members. This council is given real responsibilities—the spending of over fifty thousand dollars a year, the jurisdiction over nearly all the extra-class activities of the campus, the financing and supervising of campus publications, the operation of the college bookstore, and the formulation and administration of campus standards of conduct. The students belonging to this council have proved worthy of the responsibility given them, and employ flexible, informal, and democratic methods.

Likewise representative of the newer trend toward democratic student-faculty co-operation in government, is the student-faculty congress developed at Bucknell University (240, 1937). The congress grew out of a faculty investigation of all campus activities other than intercollegiate athletics and social fraternities, and had

been in operation for five years at the time the article cited was published.

The accomplishments of the congress have been to establish control over the student budget, to form policies, to promote better campus spirit, to develop a wholesome social program and a course given by visiting artists, to supervise student elections, to assist in preparing a weekly calendar of college activities, and to sponsor a spring festival.

Among the weaknesses of this form of organization are the unequal distribution of student representation among various interest groups, the initial vagueness of purposes, the policy of electing an entirely new student membership each year, and the fallibility of student elections, sometimes resulting in representatives of inferior quality.

The advantages of the congress lie in its opportunities to effect better co-ordination of campus activities and purposeful changes in policy through the co-operative effort of administrators, faculty, and students. Thus coherence and continuity in business management, and other aspects of group activity have been made possible, and the extra-curriculum has been brought into harmony with the whole educational purpose of the college.¹

In describing these forms of student councils we should not lose sight of the fact that student co-operation in government does not necessarily require a special organization; it may be developed in the natural school groups already existing. Each class or club may have its own way of co-operating in school government and may contribute to the welfare of the school as a whole through its discussion of policy and its success in developing a co-operative attitude within its own small group.

Evidence of the growth of interest in student councils is the increasing number of schools represented in the annual conference of student councils. At the tenth annual conference of the central region held in 1938 student councils in sixty high schools in six states sent pupil delegates and faculty sponsors (16, 1938). Each succeeding year since the organization of the conference in 1928 has seen a steady growth and a larger number of schools represented.

b. Election of officers.—The election of officers for the student council is extremely important, because the success of the organization depends upon having well-qualified leaders. Some schools follow

¹ Valuable information about the forms of government associations now in operation may be obtained by perusing the current students' handbooks of outstanding high schools, colleges, and universities.

the plan of electing to the council the two, three, or four boys and girls of each class receiving the largest number of votes. The majority of schools, however, employ the nomination procedure.

At the University of Pittsburgh (9, 1937) a small nominating committee has proved to be the best method of electing student officers. All other systems tried have seemed to place a premium on personal preferences or political maneuvering. The members of a small committee can be educated to act from a personnel point of view and to take pride in sound judgment. The student court approves members of all nominating committees, basing its recommendation on the following factors: the members' academic record and reputation for fair-mindedness, requirements of the bylaws of each organization, representativeness of membership, and absence of duplication—for no person can serve on two nominating committees at the same time.

Whatever the election procedure, the qualifications for each office should be discussed prior to nomination. Such a discussion encourages students to think in terms of abilities needed for successfully discharging the duties of the office rather than in terms of personalities.

After a candidate is nominated, he builds his platform. The necessity for presenting his platform to the student body stimulates each candidate to study the needs of the school and to invent ways in which his organization may meet these needs. Candidates who are handicapped by shyness or poor oral expression may be given special help in public speaking.

Another problem that arises in connection with school elections is the aftermath of disappointment attendant upon defeat. Dean Amos of the University of Pittsburgh has met this problem by having a luncheon for all candidates before elections are held. At this luncheon the certainty of defeat of half the candidates is faced, and the best attitude to take in the event of not being elected is discussed. These suggestions regarding elections, of course, are suitable for application to all groups, not just to governing organizations.

c. Responsibilities of the student council.—The student council is concerned with the intangible field of student attitudes and ideals, and with concrete contributions to the school. In the latter phase of the council's work the emphasis should be on problems of a constructive nature rather than with routine matters of discipline.

The program of the student council as reported at Cornell University (558, 1938) included activities of vital concern to students:

surveys of student opinion on major matters involving students and of student housing conditions, policy making with respect to athletics, control with respect to student conduct, and the development of a program of freshman orientation and a "House Plan" of government and activities in the men's dormitory units.

The lists of activities of high school councils tend to include somewhat more trivial items, as well as some of vital significance to the school. The following were described as "best projects" by the delegates at an annual conference of student councils (16, 1938):

1. Eliminating thievery and smoking on school premises.
2. Regulating traffic within the building:
3. Drilling on the niceties of courtesy.
4. Bringing all school activities within the range of all pupils through the sale of activity tickets, which can be "worked out" by pupils lacking funds.
5. Arranging social affairs for the entire student body.
6. Publishing printed matter to serve pupil needs.
7. Arranging orientation courses for new pupils.
8. Conducting physical education reviews.
9. Holding an annual "candle service" (Sunday Vesper) as a senior farewell.
10. Keeping activity records of pupils over a period of ten years —of use to prospective employers and college authorities.
11. Providing at nominal cost a dramatic program of eight numbers.
12. Conducting a safe driving course after school hours.
13. Improving conditions in the cafeteria.
14. Helping to purchase equipment needed for interscholastic sports.
15. Arranging activities for the noon hour so that every pupil has something interesting to do (16:322, 1938).

A still more extensive list of 310 activities and projects of student councils was compiled by Harvey (251, 1939) from correspondence of the Executive Secretary of the National Association of Student Officers, Chicago, Illinois; reports of the councils, speeches, and papers. These activities covered a range from the most old-fashioned and trivial to the most vital and important projects. Included in the list were such projects as: "award plaques or banners each grading period to home rooms with highest scholastic average," "serve as general advisory group to principal," "publish a volume of original writing by students," and "operate summer camp and school."

Other projects frequently mentioned in recent articles are the planning of assembly programs, the forming of public opinion or school spirit, the maintaining of a lost and found department, the supervision of library and study hall, and the supervision of elections. One student council (2, 1939) took an active part in such important projects as the influencing of voters to authorize a levy that would make possible the construction of a fine, up-to-date school plant, the selection of the building site, and the care of the new building. In fact, almost every important phase of school life is represented in student council projects, and each of these might be improved by "utilizing student power" (313, 1936).

Van Til (599, 1939) described the process by which the necessity for financing student activities became the mother of a meaningful student council. Confronted with a deficit of several hundred dollars, the council proposed, discussed, and carried out various plans for raising funds. More important than the actual clearing of the debt were the questions of policy thrashed out in student-faculty meetings.

One of the most disputed responsibilities of the student council is that connected with discipline. The student court is usually connected with the student council and handles cases of discipline with different degrees of assistance from members of the faculty. Controversy centers around the kind and seriousness of behavior problems with which the student court may deal and the extent to which its decision is final.

The attitude of the student court in many schools is still punitive though not in the high-handed manner of earlier years. Figures taken from the record of the student council of the Demonstration High School of West Virginia University (2, 1939) indicate a lack of drastic punishment by the students. Of 265 cases coming before the council during a ten-year period, only thirty-four cases, or 12.8 per cent, were referred to the principal. That the milder penalties and "talking to" were effective is indicated by the small number of offenders called before the council a second or third time—only twenty in all.

Such a policy, however, is far below the ideal situation in which students take toward one another the same constructive attitude that a skilled counselor would take. Some student courts (the name itself is bad because of its punitive connotation) are approaching this ideal. Their purpose is to find out why certain students are breaking rules and to acquaint them with the enjoyable and wholesome aspects of school life. Thus the student counsel reinforces counseling.

4. THE HONOR SYSTEM

The honor system in college and secondary school is an attempt to develop the controls within the individual, using external pressure or enforcement by representatives of the group only when necessary (359, 1927). An honor system, then, has two functions. The first is to impress the students with their obligation to be honest in school work, and the second to enforce honesty, if necessary. The system is conducted by the students themselves. Its expressed aim is to help students develop self-control and self-direction; its actual aim is often merely to relieve teachers of their responsibility during examinations.

The honor system in American colleges has a long history, dating back to the early days of William and Mary. It reached a peak about 1911. About that time an enthusiastic account (459, 1913) of the honor system at the University of Virginia was published. The pledge to give or receive no help on an examination was adopted in 1842, and later revised, and was appended to all written quizzes. The success of this system was attributed to the mutual relation of trust and friendship existing between students and faculty members. Believing that he is trusted, the student tries to prove himself worthy of that trust. Undoubtedly, tradition played a part also, for the system was presented as a natural growth and living embodiment of Thomas Jefferson's ideal of academic discipline. In cases in which the appeal to honor was not effective, dismissal from the institution was in order. At the University of North Carolina (77, 1936), likewise, tradition probably played a part in the overwhelming vote to retain the honor system, even though an almost equally large number of students admitted that they would not report a violator.

Whereas the University of Virginia depended upon students to report cases of cheating, Bird (38, 1929) recommended psychological methods of detecting cheating in objective examinations which would demonstrate to students that persistent denial of cheating is futile. Although this emphasis on detection and punishment was characteristic of many of the earlier honor systems, and still is found in many institutions, there is a growing demand on the part of students for prevention rather than punishment in the handling of violations (77, 1936). For example, at Oberlin College (625, 1930) the educational and preventive aspects were emphasized. Although penalties imposed by the honor court were sometimes as severe as suspension from the college, the system recognized the importance of taking the personnel point of view toward offenders

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—trying to ascertain the causes of their violation and seeking to correct the basic difficulties.

A survey (603, 1933) made in 1930 found that 40 per cent of American colleges employed an honor system. A number of outstanding colleges and universities have reported their honor systems as successful, while an equal number have tried and abandoned the system. It is significant that more state universities have abandoned the honor system, after giving it a trial, than are now using it exclusively. Details regarding the extent of use are as follows:

	Used Exclusively		Used in Part		Used and Abandoned		Not in Use		Total No.
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
<i>Public:</i>									
In state universities.	5	15	7	20	8	23	22	65	34
State colleges.....	1	9	1	9	4	36	9	82	11
Municipal universities...	0	0	0	0	1	50	2	100	2
<i>Private:</i>									
Colleges and universities..	10	30	3	9	7	20	21	61	34
	<u>16</u>		<u>11</u>		<u>20</u>		<u>54</u>		

Only two of the one hundred schools in this survey by Wahlquist reported that their honor systems were fully satisfactory.

In a more recent survey under the direction of Hand (236:85, 1938) thirteen of the twenty-two colleges having "complete" honor systems reported that the system was working "very successfully." Objective evidence, however, indicated a fairly large amount of dishonesty under both the honor system and the proctor system (190, 1927); in one situation (88, 1935) much less under the honor system.

A number of factors may account for the failure of honor systems. Perhaps first in importance is the general reluctance on the part of students to report violations. Another important factor is the pressure put on students to obtain high marks. That this is a factor is indicated by those investigations which show that cheating increases as the fear of failure increases (272, 1930). For example, Fenton (190, 1927) reported the following relationship between grades received and cheating:

of those who received Grade A	100 per cent	had not cheated
" " " " " B	67	" " " " "
" " " " " C	20	" " " " "

of those who received Grade D	25 per cent had not cheated
" " " failed in course	O " " " " " "

Fenton also reported, as would be expected, a definite tendency for the intelligence levels of groups to be higher in direct relationship to the amount of honesty displayed by students in the examinations. Cheating seemed to be "the expression of a felt need." Brownell (72, 1928) described thirty "cribbers" as presenting a combination of extroversion, relatively low intelligence, and psychoneurotic traits. This investigation merely suggests the personality pattern of the student as another factor.

Still another reason for the failure of certain honor systems lies in the way in which some of them were introduced. Instead of arising from student demand and with faculty backing, they were imposed upon the student body by administrative orders. Obviously, honor systems cannot operate successfully without the enthusiastic support of faculty and students and that intangible atmosphere called *morale*.

The honor system, if honestly supported by the entire student body, is effective and inspiring. If not so supported, it is likely to foster falsehood and hypocrisy. The faculty cannot hide behind an honor system and expect honesty to perpetuate itself. Unfortunately, moral conduct is not created by testing it, without regard for the stage of development of individual students. It is learned in specific situations and is probably subject to the same psychological laws as learning of other kinds.

C. CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

If maturity in morality is in the direction of interiorization of external authority into "conscience," and if moral development involves increasing responsibility on the part of the individual for making and keeping laws, then student co-operation in government should develop in the following directions:

1. Participation in government by all members of the student body instead of by a small governing group. Historically, student co-operation in government developed from informal and natural participation into highly organized and complicated forms of organization. A slight trend was noted toward a return to student-faculty co-operation in curricular as well as in extra-curriculum phases of school life.
2. All the students should share in the making of rules and policies. Although in some instances provision has been made for

two-way traffic of ideas, many student government officers report difficulty in enlisting the interest and support of the student body so that suggestions will flow from the members to officers and likewise in the other direction—from leaders to members of the entire student body. In order to obtain this interchange of ideas, leaders must cultivate a sensitivity to the needs of the student body as a whole. Every rule and regulation should be justified by defensible reasons often suggested by students and always discussed with and understood by them. Student forums such as those described by Price (463, 1941) stimulate students to face and analyze campus problems.

3. The values of governing organizations cannot be attained without attention being given to the education of administrators, teachers, and students. Student-faculty co-operation in government is an educative process. Everyone learns; everyone grows.

Reasons why student co-operation in government has failed include the following:

1. It has been imposed from above.
2. The form imposed was not suitable to local conditions.
3. Interest and sympathetic attitude on the part of principal or faculty were lacking.
4. Adequate guidance by a qualified person was lacking.
5. In reality it was merely a pretense at school government; "the faculty pulled the strings."
6. It consumed time and energy that could be more profitably employed in other ways.
7. It was not concerned with worthwhile projects.
8. There was too large a proportion of faculty members on the council.
9. Students attempted to deal with too complex and serious personality problems. There must be some understanding on the part of the student council concerning the kinds of problems which they can handle and the kinds that should be referred to a personnel worker. In general, it seems obvious that complex psychological problems should be referred to someone who has more background in the field of mental hygiene than students have.
10. It was concerned with punitive rather than educational methods of controlling conduct and building character. This point of view persists, although examples of positive rather than negative attacks on disciplinary problems have been

noted. In the positive approach the case is considered with the future, not the past, in mind; the decision is made in the light of what is best for the individual and the group.

There is no one best plan of student co-operation in government. Whatever plan is developed must fit the school. It will, of necessity, vary with the policy of the institution, the development of the students and their experience in self-direction, the personality and professional preparation of the teachers, and the extent to which the guidance point of view permeates the entire school.

D. RESEARCH NEEDED

Surveys of opinions and practices with respect to student co-operation in government, which constitute the major portion of the references on this problem, should be continued periodically. Instead of being conducted, however, in the present unstandardized way, a representative sample of schools should be selected for study, the method of study developed expertly, and then applied at intervals of five or ten years. Thus trends in extent and nature of student councils can be ascertained in much the same manner as in the Gallup polls.

A more fundamental type of investigation would be concerned with the process by which different groups of students work co-operatively with faculty members and administrators in improving their schools. The process may be best studied by a participant observer who is in a position to describe the group-work process and the changes effected in and by students. Data may be obtained in a situation having no organized student co-operation in government, and again in the same situation after a certain form of student government organization has been established.

CHAPTER V

SERVICE, SOCIAL, AND RECREATIONAL GROUPS

SOCIAL sensitivity may be developed through both service and social and recreational groups. By helping others, as well as by working and playing with them, individual students add to their own social stature. Accordingly, the service groups in the school or college may contribute to a neglected aspect of personality development.

That the development of social sensitivity, in its broad sense, has been neglected is indicated by the results obtained in the Regents' Inquiry (540, 1938). The tests used

offered unmistakable evidence that the boys and girls who are on the point of leaving school, whatever they may think about the desirability of certain kinds of action, are reluctant to assume responsibility for civic co-operation, or to commit themselves to action which will involve personal effort or sacrifice (540:24, 1938).

A. SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS

The services performed by committees or commissions of the student council have already been mentioned. Other services are rendered by the girls' league, the boys' league, the general association, and special service clubs. The large organizations perform many services to the school. They co-operate with guidance workers, supplementing the guidance program at several points, such as the orientation of freshmen, the collecting of information on various vocational and educational guidance problems, and the planning of assemblies and social events. Thus these large groups make a contribution to the smooth running of the school as well as to the interests and needs of students.

Obviously, the student leadership in these organizations is extremely important and the office of president of the student body or general association is a most honored and responsible one. The elections at the Horace Mann School for Girls (19, 1933) illustrate the importance of guidance in the nomination and election of officers of these whole-school organizations. The qualifications of the delegates to the convention are carefully considered. These delegates must, in turn, consider the nominees from every standpoint, such

as the amount of work carried by each, her ability to work with others to meet the responsibilities of the position, as well as her general character. The nominees are then presented to the school for election, as scheduled in the school calendar. This system of electing a president for such an important position allows for more careful and thorough planning, and the thought which should precede any such election. The officers elected determine, in part, the service activities of the organization.

Although service activities are still frequently limited to rather narrow kinds of school services such as directing corridor traffic, greeting and guiding visitors, protecting the property of students and of the school, managing a lost and found office, and the like, a change for the better may be noted during the past twenty years. It is seldom that such a project as the "presentation of a silver loving cup to members of the League who have won honors" is included in recent reports of league activities.

To an even greater extent special service clubs are concerned with important school and community services. At the Abraham Lincoln High School of Los Angeles (42, 1940) the services rendered by student groups extend beyond the school into the community. Through these student organizations, in co-operation with the co-ordinating council of social agencies, a wide variety of useful services are made available to numerous persons. Through such community services the students help to bridge the gap between the school and the community.

B. SOCIAL CLUBS

Since a large proportion of the leisure time of most persons is spent in social activities, the quality of the social education offered by the schools is an important part of education for life. Certainly this aspect of guidance, being in an area in which the individual can exercise considerable control, is fully as important as vocational guidance. Aristotle went so far as to say that "the whole end and object of education is training for the right use of leisure." In the following quotation Jacks emphasized leisure as vital to a person's total adjustment and education for leisure as an intrinsic part of education as a whole:

It would be a serious mistake to regard education for leisure as a new department in education or a special kind of education to be added on to the education which is given for work. There is too much specialization anyhow, in our present methods of education. "An educated person is a person who can do a job he never did before," an original, creative,

flexible person, whose all-round education has brought him to the point of finding out for himself the best way of dealing with the situation as it arises. That applies with special force to anything you may call education for leisure. It would be utterly futile to give any person detailed instructions as to how he should spend the particular portion of leisure he happens to have. It would cease to be leisure if he had to use it according to rule. All you can do by way of educating him for leisure is to make him familiar with the field where the finer opportunities exist . . . train him as an all-round man, a good judge of values, capable of making his own choice and developing his own technic. . . . It forces us back to the major question of educating the whole man as an essentially creative being whose nature hungers for skill and is never to be satisfied or content till his skill hunger is appeased (285:48-49, 1932).

The value of leisure-time activities lies essentially in its recreativeness. If these activities become organized in conventional patterns, they lose their recreative value.

Part of a person's total education, as Jacks suggested, may consist of making him "familiar with the field where the finer opportunities exist." This is usually accomplished through firsthand experience, but may be achieved through instruction even of short duration. Hopper (274, 1933) offered some evidence that the leisure activities of junior high school pupils could be modified by from fifteen to twenty minutes of instruction daily over a period of twenty weeks. Five units were taught: (1) libraries and their facilities, (2) appreciation of good music, (3) enjoyment of pleasant social life, (4) games and sports, and (5) outdoor activity. At the conclusion of the study a survey of the pupils' leisure activities showed that the experimental group were spending much more of their leisure time in "useful, worthy activities than were the pupils of the control group who had not had the special instruction."

Instruction of a less formal kind is equally important in social groups, for learning does not take place through practice alone. Without instruction social clubs may exert a harmful rather than a beneficial influence on their members. Based on the sociological principle of "consciousness of kind," they justify, perhaps, a certain degree of exclusiveness, yet, if undirected, they often have a detrimental effect on members as well as nonmembers. Under such conditions members tend to become ingrown and snobbish, while nonmembers may have a poignant sense of being "left out." The latter are deprived of the personality development that ensues from satisfying social adjustments and a sense of belonging to a group.

There are also obvious vocational implications of social education. Wallace (607, 1938) reported that of four thousand office workers who lost their positions, 90 per cent were said to have been dismissed because of deficient character and personality traits. She believes that the kind of personality required for success in business is "more successfully developed as an extracurricular activity than in regularly scheduled class work" (607:153, 1938).

I. FACTORS IN SOCIAL EDUCATION

The reason why many students join social groups is "to find friends." It is important that this value of social groups be legitimately fostered in activities designed to enrich the lives of people and fit them to cope with life, and to control, as far as possible, their social environment.

Any student or teacher is attracted to certain persons and repelled by others; he attracts certain persons and repels others. Some students are almost "isolates" as far as significant relationships are concerned, while others are in a network which puts them potentially into relationship with practically the entire student body. Still others are in "chains" which may be working in an anti-social way. Social success depends on a person's ability or good fortune in establishing strategic relationships with other persons who can further his development and to whose social maturity he can contribute.

One of the few investigations dealing with procedures for cultivating social motives, in a broader sense, was reported by Tuttle (590, 1937). Reports from 275 colleges showed that they were relying on the following means for developing social-mindedness in students:

Total Situation (170 Institutions)			Specific Procedures (117 Institutions)		
Aspects Emphasized	Number Mention- ing	Courses	Number Mention- ing	Methods	Number Mention- ing
Faculty influence.....	10	Survey, social field....	60	Guidance, counseling....	55
Small enrollment.....	4	Bible and religion.....	45	Assembly or chapel.....	46
Traditions, atmosphere.	2	Sociology, ethics.....	45	E.C.A.....	45
Democratic spirit.....	2	Psychology...	20	Field-service projects.....	20
Self-support.....	2	Literature....	20	Dormitory life	4
Integrated curriculum.	1	Science.....	7		

The emphasis on the importance of courses and the lack of emphasis on faculty influence, dormitory life, and other aspects of living is particularly significant.

An experimental study by the same investigator showed almost the opposite results. The larger gains, as indicated by changes in scores on a test of social orientation devised by Maller and Tuttle, and administered at the beginning and again at the end of the freshman year, were made by the following groups:

1. Those who read progressive magazines, e.g., *Survey*, *New Republic*, *Nation*.
2. Those who contributed to self-support.
3. Those who participated in off-campus service projects.
4. Those enrolled with certain staff members.

The study of social sciences did not clearly effect change of attitudes as measured. That social attitudes are distinct from knowledge is indicated by the lack of relationship between social concern and intelligence or college marks. So far as this experiment shows, intellectual instruction, even in the fields of most basic social values, does not transmit a concern for those values.

School life, as a whole, however, may definitely further social development. The question might be raised: "To what extent do individuals acquire, through the experiences of school and college life, the ability to conform to approved standards of social behavior?" In order to answer this question, Hawkes (254, 1927) studied 1,100 unselected individuals, representing a wide geographical and occupational distribution. A survey test based on an analysis of general social contacts was constructed and applied. It was found that the ability to meet social situations increased with the age of the individuals, and was most marked in those selected groups that presented evidence of extended schooling. This investigation suggested the responsibility of the school as a co-ordinator of the out-of-school activities of its students, and as a means of instruction directed toward the development through school life and youthful experiences of the ability to mingle successfully with other persons.

Somewhat similar results were obtained with 1,614 students in two junior and four senior high schools. On a test of knowledge of social usage (548, 1931) consisting of 110 statements selected from standard books of etiquette and adapted to the experience and vocabulary of high school students here was an increase in the mean scores from the seventh to the twelfth grades. Students whose fathers were engaged in the professions made higher scores, on the average, than those from homes representing unskilled labor, skilled labor, and

small business. No consistent tendency was found for the student who engaged in many extra-curriculum activities to obtain a higher score than the student who engaged in few.

2. CASUAL OR TRANSITORY SOCIAL GROUPINGS

The least tangible, but not the least important of the groupings in educational institutions, particularly in the residence college, are those which form, dissolve, and re-form: at the dining table, in social rooms, on walks, and in innumerable other combinations. These unorganized groups cut across organization lines. They differ from the "bull sessions" in that the attraction which leads to the grouping is personal and the conversation usually social and recreational. These groups make a contribution to elements of personality development not emphasized in the regular classes. The leader's part is to facilitate, not to control, the contribution of these groups.

Especially important in these informal and spontaneous groups are the boy-and-girl relationships. When the sexual urge has no normal outlets, it may take extreme and unusual forms. "Crushes" seem to be stimulated by segregation. Coeducation, however, is not a sure cure for one-sided social development because girls may lack the comradeship of men in coeducational as well as in all-girl schools. Thus the disadvantages of segregation persist unless those who are heterosexually isolated learn how to become chosen for some events.

a. Groups formed for conversation.—One of the most important social assets is good conversational ability. An attempt to ascertain the quality of college students' conversation (544, 1930) when they gather together informally resulted in the following information about their topics of conversation:

1. The general topic of greatest interest was sex. Almost a fourth of conversational interest centered around this subject.
2. "Dates" constituted 6.8 per cent of the total number of topics recorded by men and 8.0 per cent of the total number recorded by women.
3. Women discussed personalities more frequently than men did.
4. Little interest was evinced in modern social experiments.

In short, the bulk of conversation in these dormitories and fraternity and sorority houses was limited to certain topics that were social in a very narrow sense.

The conversation of older persons, however, was not found to be on a higher level. By listening in on conversations heard in the concert-hall lobby during intermissions, three investigators (89,

1936) obtained 601 samples of conversation. The leading topics of men's conversations were money and business, other men, women, other amusements, and sports. The leading topics of conversation among women were other women, men, clothes, other amusements, and their immediate surroundings. A clear sex difference was found with respect to four items. Men conversed more frequently on money and business and sports; women on other women and clothes. Women conversed to a significantly greater degree on personalities. The conversation of mixed groups tended to be dominated by topics of either equal or little interest to the sexes conversing separately.

Conversation may become the leisure activity par excellence (436: 147, 1934). It may be a substitute for a hobby or an addition to one. Conversation has the advantage of requiring no financial expenditures and no paraphernalia; it may have definite therapeutic value. Both the home and the school offer opportunities for creative and recreational conversation, and proficiency in the art may be increased through the informal activities of school and college life.

b. Groups in which dancing predominates.—In many social groups, as soon as dancing is introduced, it tends to monopolize the evening. This tendency for dancing to crowd out other social activities is now, in most parts of the country, the chief objection to it. Recognizing the students' need for this social skill, social directors and physical education teachers have provided classes in social dancing, in some instances as part of the curriculum.

A report made in 1929 on the status of dancing in fifty-two Indiana high schools (614, 1929) showed that dancing was prohibited in eighteen schools, permitted only as part of another school function in twelve schools, and permitted in the form of regular dances in twenty-two schools. Those schools which permitted dances kept them strictly under school control, and encouraged faculty members to attend. Schools which prohibit dancing offered the following reasons:

Public opinion unfavorable.

Has no place as a school activity.

Supervision of dancing overworks principal and faculty.

Dancing causes a difficult problem of discipline.

The duties of the chaperon are disagreeable.

High school students have more social activities than they need.

The principal is opposed to dancing.

Undesirable because all students will not participate.

Hard to keep out the non-students who cause the trouble.

Schools which permit dancing offered the following reasons :

School dances better than unsupervised dances.

Dancing best way to entertain large numbers of young people.

Dancing a wholesome exercise.

Dancing provides a means of the mingling of boys and girls.

Students ask for dances.

Dancing is enjoyed.

Dancing is the most easily controlled of social activities.

Dancing is a part of school life to be tolerated and directed.

One attempt to apply the principle of substituting an approved activity for one which is prohibited is seen in the newly introduced "college night clubs." These organizations aim to attract students away from less desirable week-end entertainment off campus. As might be expected, differences of opinion regarding the college night club exist among personnel workers, students, and persons in the community (304, 1938). Two conclusions were reached :

1. Although the college night club is new and untried it is obvious that it has its good points.
2. "The club will be quite easily controlled, will probably please its student patrons, and will be no worse, and probably better, than most week-end dance emporia which students now attend" (304:186, 1938).

The introduction of the "night club" in the high school (470, 1938) seems somewhat premature. College students who have already been attracted by commercialized night clubs might be diverted by the college substitute. High school students, on the other hand, might be stimulated by the school night club to seek a similar type of entertainment outside the schools.

c. Groups featuring faculty and other adults as guests.—A type of social experience which students prize highly is the opportunity to meet informally members of the faculty and other people of importance. Such an opportunity is described by President Butler as the most important part of his education abroad :

Personal contacts with these scholars and men of letters were not quite so easy as had been the case in Berlin, but much that was charming was easily possible because the family with which I lived knew a great many of the men of letters, a great many of the actors and actresses at the Théâtre Français and a great many of the musicians at the Opéra. On Wednesday nights during the whole winter they used to have a little group of these come in for an entire informal evening,

and by the time a few months had passed I had had opportunity to see, with delightful intimacy, some thirty or forty of the most important and interesting French men and women of letters, of the fine arts and of the stage. Here again was that rich helpfulness to a liberal education which far and away outbalanced anything that I ever heard in the lecture rooms. One may buy a book and read what a man has to say about philosophy or history, but if you get close to his personality and watch it reveal itself in your presence, especially when surrounded with men of his own kind and of his own intellectual competence, however varied may be their dominant interests, you are getting a truly liberal education (81:89, 1936).

One practice that might be more generally followed, particularly in resident groups, is a judicious mingling of students with persons from and in the community. Some ties already exist; others may be formed with resulting mutual enjoyment.

In their class groups the faculty may develop more friendly relations in various ways. Davis (139, 1936) obtained judgments of his colleagues as to possible ways of stimulating friendliness among students enrolled in classes in education. The ratings on each suggested technic are as follows:

Now Done	Approval of Idea	
18	29	2. By arranging one or more interviews with each student during the semester.
19	28	4. By accepting invitations to meet students at informal social affairs.
7	28	1. By placing copies of the membership of the class in the hands of the students.
18	27	3. By gathering facts concerning the training and experience of students.
25	27	8. By calling on students by name when asking them to recite or make reports.
15	24	7. By following up absences due to illness, injury, etc.
22	22	9. By creating opportunities within the class for students to work together on committees.
13	21	12. By stressing the importance of prospective teachers having a friendly interest in associates.
16	19	13. By inviting students to one's home for an occasional social meeting.
10	18	6. By commending individual students for work in campus activities or in other classes.
13	17	5. By encouraging students to become acquainted with their neighbors seated near them in the classroom.
11	13	14. By having the School of Education as a unit hold occasional receptions for students.
6	9	11. By using the personnel records in the office of the School of Education.
5	6	10. By checking occasionally the extent to which students feel acquainted with other members of the class.

Such devices, unless used frankly and by leaders who are themselves accepted by the group, either fall flat or are actively resented, thus defeating their purpose.

3. HOBBY CLUBS

In addition to their basic contribution to the social life of students, hobby clubs and special interest groups may contribute to the enrichment of the leisure time of the student body as a whole. Creative activities engaged in voluntarily as hobbies need to be fostered. For the possession of economic resources strengthens the tendency to purchase one's pleasure. The development of hobby clubs is a significant index of the interests of students. More arts and crafts clubs are needed for their therapeutic value to all students, for their value in developing satisfying adult hobbies, and to meet the needs for successful endeavor on the part of the less academically minded students.

For children with special gifts hobby clubs offer an opportunity to work together with others of the same interests. Hahn (234, 1938) described five hobby clubs formed in Washington, D. C., for children of strong interest and unusual ability in choral work, creative writing, art, science, and melody making. Children were selected from the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades of eighteen schools of the city; laboratories were established in centrally located schools, meetings were held once a week, and leaders of exceptional ability were employed. Although there were problems of selection and scheduling, problems of adequate records of progress, and of co-operation of parents, the clubs appeared to have value in developing special abilities and in improving the adjustment of children by helping them to use their special talents more fully.

Hobbies have been encouraged in various ingenious ways. One school set aside a special room, designated as "Hobby Hall," in which there were permanent exhibits of hobbies. Some schools have held "Hobby Fairs" and "Hobby Shows," the aim of which was to demonstrate profitable ways of using leisure. In other situations the school shops serve as the center of hobby activities. Agencies in the community may likewise feature hobby shows of many types. Sometimes school and community are drawn together by a common interest in hobbies of persons of all ages. Enthusiasm for hobbies has been so genuine in the Camp Fire Girls organization that the members have become national exhibitors (355, 1935).

If promoted too vigorously, however, the value of hobbies may be destroyed. It would be unfortunate to introduce the competitive

element into an activity whose charm lies in its spontaneity and individuality.

4. SORORITIES AND FRATERNITIES

Probably no group activity has generated as much emotion as fraternities have. Although recognized as an important agency of self-development and student initiative, fraternities have created psychological and financial problems that have made regulation by college authorities necessary. Because of the emotional attachment to fraternities on the part of undergraduates and alumni, these organizations cannot be abolished arbitrarily. Accordingly, the majority of institutions of higher learning have tried to integrate the group life with college life in all its aspects. In the high schools the fraternity has never become a recognized part of the program of group activities, and has tended to be replaced by a more satisfactory type of social life in the school.

a. Comparisons of fraternity and non-fraternity members.—

A large number of investigations concerning the intelligence level of fraternity and non-fraternity men may be summarized as follows:

In intelligence, fraternity men are not significantly different from non-fraternity men. Harriman (239:280, 1931) reported the following distributions of scores on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination for pledged and for non-pledged freshmen:

Scores	Frequencies of	
	Pledges	Non-Pledges
300-319.....	0	1
280-299.....	0	0
260-279.....	0	1
240-259.....	3	1
220-239.....	5	2
200-219.....	4	5
180-199.....	8	7
160-179.....	12	12
140-159.....	17	15
120-139.....	17	21
100-119.....	13	14
80- 99.....	12	9
60- 79.....	6	5
40- 59.....	3	4
20- 39.....	0	3
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	100	100
Median score.....	138.8	134.3

The relationship between scores on a psychological examination and membership in a college fraternity is obviously easily altered by

regulation such as that at the University of Oregon (432, 1934), where only men in the upper nine deciles on the American Council Psychological Examination were eligible to be pledged. Anyone, however, might become eligible to pledge in a subsequent quarter by attaining good grades—a grade point average of 0.75.

In college achievement, the comparative standing of fraternity men varies with the institution. At the University of Maine records of 2,817 students, over a period of eleven years, showed no significant difference between the marks of fraternity and non-fraternity men (178, 1927). The results of this investigation by Eurich should be given special weight because they are based on a comprehensive set of figures extending over a period of eleven years. However, it must be remembered also that the data are from a single college where the fraternity environment and academic environment may not be typical of higher institutions elsewhere. However, other investigations have reported similar results.

At the University of Oregon (118, 1929) the college grades of fraternity men were slightly superior to those of the non-fraternity men in 1927 but not in 1928; at Brown University (381, 1933) a comparison of the marks of the two groups consistently showed a slight but not statistically significant difference in favor of the non-fraternity group. It was significant that at the University of Oregon the fraternity men worked at a relatively higher level of efficiency after they reached college than they did when in high school. In another study, at Albion College, Carter (94, 1934) found the average achievement of fraternity men almost the same as the average achievement of non-fraternity men.

A comparison between 129 non-fraternity and an equal number of fraternity high school boys in Lincoln, Nebraska (421, 1921), showed the following differences in favor of the non-fraternity members:

	No. Times Tardy	No. Days Absent	No. Subjects Failed	No. Subjects in Which Marks of 90% or More Were Obtained
Secret society members...	802	1386	102	96
Non-fraternity members..	412	1085	48	152

It will be noted that the secret members of fraternities were tardy almost twice as many times as the non-fraternity students. They were absent more frequently, failed in twice as many subjects, and received only about three-fifths as many marks over 90 per cent. The secret fraternities in this high school were obviously attracting

a group of boys whose pattern of behavior included poor scholarship and lack of interest in school.

That the stimulation of fraternity men to obtain higher grades is extrinsic and transitory is suggested by the figures obtained by Rigg (487, 1937), showing that every year fraternity grades in Kenyon College fell after the first semester, whereas the grades of non-fraternity men improved during three of the four years. Apparently there was a let-down in scholarship by fraternity pledges whether they had or had not already "made their grades."

Lehman (332, 1935) likewise reported a marked deterioration in the mean point-hour-ratio of fraternity students at the University of Ohio after they had met the initiation requirements. The same tendency was mentioned by MacPhail (381, 1933). He noted that the lowest fourth of both fraternity and non-fraternity groups made approximately the same grade averages during the freshman year. But thereafter the fraternity group tended to decline in performance and the non-fraternity group to improve markedly. Eurich (178, 1927), on the other hand, found that for the freshman year the poorer student had a somewhat better chance of scholastic achievement if he did not belong to a fraternity, while the better student seemed to be able to do superior work within the fraternity. Carter (94, 1934), using a predictive device designated as the "index of promise," obtained results that suggested that students with a higher than average index made relatively high achievement if they did not join a fraternity, while students with less than average indexes of promise did better if they did join fraternities.

These scattered investigations emphasize the complexity of the problem of relationship between scholarship and membership in the fraternity. Obviously, this relationship will vary with the ability of the students, the scholastic standards of the institution, the campus attitude toward scholastic achievement, and the efforts made by the fraternity to improve the scholarship of its members.

The regulation of scholarship requirements is usually effective in raising the scholastic standing of fraternities. The rule requiring the various fraternity groups to maintain a scholastic average equal to that of the university as a whole in order to be eligible to initiate pledges has done a great deal to redeem the academic standing of the fraternities. The publication of the scholastic averages of fraternities has made the record of individual chapters a sensitive point to the members.

At the extreme of regulation, the fraternity may grow to resemble a college, with tutors, seminars, and other means of improving

scholarship (320, 1931). More common methods are coaching by older students in the fraternity and chapter libraries (224, 1932; 225, 1931). Good music and planned and stimulated conversation and discussion were also introduced in twelve chapters and growth noted. This represents a type of investigation in which certain changes are made in the student's environment and the results noted. Without a control group, however, it is impossible to know to what extent the growth observed was the result of the environmental changes made.

With respect to participation in extra-curriculum activities, fraternity members tend to outnumber non-fraternity students in extent of participation in extra-curriculum activities. Either they are initially more socially inclined, or membership in the fraternity has made them so or has furnished an artificial stimulus to participation in campus activities. Sometimes their overactivity constitutes a menace to the fullest social development of the non-fraternity students (385, 1934).

b. Arguments for and against fraternities.—The pros and cons of fraternities have been interminably discussed (353, 1938; 485, 1912; 630, 1931). The advantages of fraternities may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. House many students, thus solving the immediate housing problem for large state universities and teachers' colleges.
2. Stimulate the building of residence halls to provide more adequate living conditions for non-fraternity students.
3. Offer social-cultural atmosphere to students. Some students have greatly profited by membership in fraternities and have enjoyed social pleasures which would not otherwise have been within their reach.
4. Foster friendships.
5. Discover and develop qualities in individuals that might have been lost in a larger group.
6. Provide training in getting on with people.
7. Offer vocational guidance and placement service to their members.
8. Assist freshmen in the difficult readjustment between high school and college, when all home ties are broken, often for the first time in life.
9. Encourage scholarship.
10. Render certain social services to the college and sometimes to the community.

According to the friends of the Greek-letter societies, in spite of a few bad traditions, they have merits.

The fundamental principles on which they are founded, embodied in their rituals, are high indeed, so idealistic that too many of their members fail to make a working connection between them and every-day life. . . . There is, as a rule, a feeling of mutual interest and responsibility. . . .

Inherent in these groups is a powerful social force which we as educators have generally allowed to go to waste, have sometimes antagonized by downright opposition (431:9, 1938).

This social force requires direction rather than suppression.

The disadvantages of fraternities are almost as numerous as the advantages:

1. Disrupt even tenor of college life by the rush system.
2. Produce undesirable emotional effects in the case of those rushed but not pledged. As a result disappointments and ill feelings have frequently been caused.
3. Foster the creation of an officially segregated group having special privileges. This may result in a false sense of superiority on the part of members and a corresponding sense of inferiority on the part of nonmembers.
4. Encourage extravagance.
5. Tend to "standardize" the individual.
6. Wield unfair political influence and often conflict with best interest of college as a whole.
7. Are indifferent to the scholastic standing of their members.

Both sides of the question are represented by the majority and minority reports of a committee of Dartmouth students. The report was the result of a study of nearly a year and a half by the Committee for the Survey of Social Life at Dartmouth College (483, 1936), twelve of whom were fraternity men. The report shows that a majority of the committee, while agreeing that the college social clubs have their place, nevertheless recommended that the Dartmouth fraternities ultimately sever all relationships with their national headquarters.

The committee's two main conclusions were:

1. It seemed probable that the student vote favoring nationals was an emotional one, and that it could not have been based on a knowledge of conditions at all equal to that achieved by the

committee during a long period of concentrated study on this and other questions related to fraternities.

2. If Dartmouth will build personalities that are to be distinguished by honesty and individuality, it must give full and free play to the development of these qualities in social life on its campus.

The minority thought the majority failed to recognize the full implications of the severing of national connections. The minority also held that these clubs would be without houses and without alumni members, and that the alumni had made some sacrifices to build the houses which now would have to be sold to the college. They recommended retention of national affiliations and appointment of a "Fraternity Supervisor."

c. Prevalent problems and possible solutions.—One problem is the inadequate bases for selection of members. The bases for choosing fraternity members have received little attention from investigators. By pairing one hundred sorority and one hundred non-sorority alumnae of a normal school, Johnson (295, 1938) obtained some significant hypotheses which should be tested in other institutions. She found that girls who had lived in rural communities during elementary and high school years were less likely to be chosen than girls with urban backgrounds. More than three-fourths of the sorority group studied believed that they had been invited to join on their own merits and not because of family or other connections. There was an almost unanimous feeling among this group that it was more embarrassing to be rushed and then not asked to join than not to be rushed at all.

In evaluating their experiences this sorority group of one hundred women said that they did not find the assessments of \$15.00 per year and the \$5.00 fee excessive and that the advantages of sorority membership were worth the cost. Over 90 per cent were of the opinion that sorority membership aided social and moral development, and was a desirable supplement to their preparation for teaching. Almost 100 per cent felt that membership in a sorority did not interfere with scholastic achievement. The opinion of the non-sorority group on all of these questions was far less favorable. Although no general conclusion about sororities can be drawn from two hundred cases in a single institution featuring local rather than national sororities, the data obtained in this situation is suggestive of conditions that should be studied in other institutions.

Another serious problem is the disruption of college life by rush

periods and the psychological effects of not being chosen. The activities of fraternities may have a disorganizing effect on college life as a whole, insofar as they usurp students' time and thought and create antagonism between members and nonmembers. As a substitute for "Hell Week," the following activities were suggested (363, 1938):

1. Supply pre-initiates, as before, with valuable information about the fraternities and the university. This information may be incorporated in two manuals, one for chapter leaders and one for pledges.
2. During the three-day meeting, just before initiation, schedule the following events:
 - a. "All-Greek" reception and dinner.
 - b. Officers' conferences, including representatives from the university administration and alumni as well as active fraternity members and representatives of national fraternities.
 - c. Several special meetings for pledged men, at which dress, manners, and social adjustment to the fraternity are discussed.
 - d. Evening discussions of fraternity relations and functions.
 - e. Small discussion groups.
 - f. Panel discussions in six areas:
 - (1) Individual guidance and chapter scholarship.
 - (2) Methods of orientation of freshmen.
 - (3) Fraternity news for city and state press and for national magazine.
 - (4) Cultivation of helpful alumni relations.
 - (5) The fraternity as an integral part of the university.

A co-operative council on a nation-wide scale included representatives of the Association of American Colleges and the National Interfraternity Conference. Together, representatives from these two groups formulated a statement of the obligation of the college to the group and its members, the obligation of the group to the college, the obligation of the group to the individual and of the individual to the group, and the obligation of the alumnus to the college and the group (479, 1938). This report has undoubtedly influenced 190 colleges and universities throughout the country, where approximately seventy national fraternities have organized chapters.

Perhaps the most serious problems connected with fraternities and sororities are those clustering around the psychological effect of not being chosen. In a college where all who wish to may join (253,

1932), the majority of those who do not join stay out from choice. No distinction is made socially between the two groups. The rush period is perhaps the greatest disrupting factor, and the most poorly managed aspect of fraternity and sorority organization. Some of the questions involved concern the time and length of the rush period, the number of rules involved—great restriction *versus* great freedom, and the feasibility of a quota system.

The financial problems connected with fraternities and sororities are almost as serious as the psychological problems. Two of the major financial problems are those relating to expense to individual members and the auditing of accounts. The following statistics (396, 1932) on fraternity costs at Wittenberg College and at the University of Minnesota are fairly representative of the majority of colleges and universities:

	Wittenberg College	University of Minnesota
Initiation fees.....	\$35-90	\$50-100
Average monthly dues.....	\$ 3.00- 6.00	\$ 3.00
Board, weekly.....	\$ 5.00- 7.00	\$ 7.00
Room, monthly.....	\$10.00-14.00	\$10.00
Cost of formal party per person.....		\$10.00
Cost of informal party per person,...		\$ 4.00

Membership in a sorority, although slightly less expensive, especially with respect to the item of dues, is more expensive than regular college life. It was estimated that it cost a girl at the University of Minnesota an additional \$150.00 to belong to a sorority.

Park (440, 1931) described methods of auditing fraternity accounts and means of collection advocated by several chapters. Four possible avenues of supervision, other than by fellow chapter members, were suggested: the college or university resident manager employed full time, a part-time professional supervisor, and the alumni. Perhaps the most satisfactory arrangement is that of having the financial supervision in the hands of each national organization. A definite system of bookkeeping should be fostered by each national organization. A national officer ought to approve the budget and audit the books of each chapter in order to be aware of the state of its affairs.

d. Co-ordination and supervision.—Recommendations for remedying the fraternity situation have stressed more faculty control and the provision of dormitory units rivaling or exceeding fraternity houses in attractiveness and social advantages. Rush (502, 1928) reported improvement of women's sororities at the University of Pittsburgh resulting from faculty administration. The co-operative

program developed by a faculty committee, of which the Dean of Women is chairman, has dignified the sorority by recognizing it officially. The work of this committee has also led to the organization of the Fraternity Presidents' Council and to self-analysis and self-direction on the part of these societies.

As early as 1912, Rickert (486, 1912) recommended that university cottages be built to supplant fraternity houses. In these cottages Rickert believed each student would have opportunities to receive and to extend hospitality. Social training would follow as a matter of course.

Dartmouth (583, 1938) inaugurated the following plan for establishing the maximum of fifty-five students in the membership of all college fraternities:

1. Beginning the fall of 1938 no fraternity may pledge more than twenty-one students from a single class. This rule will again be followed in 1939-40; but in 1940-41 each house may pledge a number large enough to bring the total membership up to fifty-five.
2. All pledging will henceforth take place in the office of the adviser to fraternities.
3. Following 1940 no fraternity may include in its membership more than five students "who are exempt or partly exempt from paying established fraternity dues and taxes."
4. From this time on no student on probation shall be allowed to pledge to a fraternity.

An example of a constructive program that cut across fraternity and non-fraternity lines was reported by Schwering (515, 1931). An organization, given the name of Phi Theta Upsilon, was initiated by a group of twenty-five sorority and non-sorority girls, under the direction of the dean of women. Its purpose was to provide an adequate social program for all women students. As part of this program a variety of hobby groups were fostered. Beginning with Freshman Week, a special effort was made to draw into the organization those who ordinarily did not join social groups.

In some colleges and universities the supervision of fraternities and sororities is a task large enough to warrant the appointment of a special officer. At Amherst (427, 1937) such an officer was made responsible for the business efficiency and financial stability of all fraternities on the campus. As his work develops, he will be expected to assume broader responsibilities, such as the officer at Dartmouth was assigned.

Lacking such a college officer to effect the integration of the fraternities with the constructive college program as a whole, the traveling secretary of the national fraternities can accomplish a great deal. If he is on the campus during the rushing period and sees for himself the problems created on a particular campus, he is in a position to aid the local group in making a better adjustment.

"Greek Conclaves," or a similar form of annual mass meeting of fraternity people to discuss problems, are usually helpful. This is really a local convention, with addresses and discussion groups to reveal and share constructive programs and various problems of the respective groups. Still more effective is the co-operative council representing both the fraternities and the university as a whole.

The Minnesota Interfraternity Council (363, 1938) sponsored a three-day conference at which different fraternity and university officials as well as undergraduate fraternity members were represented. This conference had both a general and a specific purpose. The general purpose was "to develop a forward-looking program with the help of national officers and university administrators." "Fraternities must see themselves in a larger frame." The specific purpose was to "find a constructive substitute for 'hell week.'"

Co-operation with the alumni is as important as co-operation with the officers of national fraternities. The alumni often thwart rather than aid best personnel procedure. This influence may be due to their exclusive interest in the fraternity and failure to see the fraternity as an integrated part of the college program as a whole. If alumni had the personnel point of view, as they do in some instances, they would contribute greatly to the unification of social life on the campus.

e. High school fraternities.—In the high school, fraternities were early replaced by substituting, for such societies, a more satisfactory type of social life in the school. The high school at Lincoln, Nebraska, in 1918 had seven Greek-letter fraternities (267, 1926). These societies held their social functions outside of school and led to the loss of democratic ideals. As a result of dissatisfaction on the part of parents, teachers, and students, a more democratic type of social life was developed in the school. The University High School at Chicago had a similar experience.

More drastic measures, however, have been taken in many situations. In 1926 McDaniel (367, 1926) reported that eighteen states had laws prohibiting fraternities and sororities in secondary schools. Thus two methods of dealing with high school fraternities may be employed: to enforce the law against fraternities or to develop a

social program along democratic lines that will meet the needs of boys and girls. The educational value of the second method is obvious.

5. LEADERSHIP IN SOCIAL GROUPS

The leader of social groups has a responsibility both to members and nonmembers. For the benefit of those in the group the leader should deepen and broaden the ideals and programs of their meetings. He will also try to relate group to group in order to keep the members from becoming ingrown. Groups, like individuals, should be considered in their relationship to other groups. An individual's membership in a group should be made a means of relating him or her progressively to more significant groups. This is one of the cardinal principles of professional group work, and is of great concern to the leader.

For those outside the closed organizations the leader will help form new groups. He will discover and introduce to members students who would fit in well with existing groups but who have been overlooked. In some situations the leader may increase the advantages of lesser groups. If this is done skillfully, members of the initially less important groups will not feel inferior or rationalize about the advantages of the re-energized group.

Intent upon the social development of individuals, the leader may employ Moreno's technique¹ of letting students choose the persons with whom they will live, or sit at table, or serve on a committee. Later he may make special efforts to help isolates and anti-social individuals to find more satisfaction in their school relationships. The leader may also open to students new bases for selecting associates, progressively better adapted to individual development and happiness.

A specialized type of leader in social groups is the chaperon who attends any student gathering where protection or guidance may be necessary or perhaps merely customary. In a sense the chaperon is a hostess and the students guests of the college. Emily Post emphasized the freedom that chaperonage gives to the young girl. Not only does the presence of a chaperon prevent overconcern with conventionality, but it also offers a source of information to unsophisticated students who need immediate help in adjusting to a new social situation.

The National Panhellenic in Dallas in 1926, by the questionnaire method, made a survey of the chaperon situation in 101 colleges and universities (314, 1928). At that time wide variation was re-

¹ See pages 233-242 for description of sociometric methods.

ported in the amount of chaperonage required and in the activities which are chaperoned. The variation is due primarily to the large amount of chaperonage required for individuals or very small groups in the Southern colleges. Colleges in Eastern, Western, and Middle Western sections of the United States were insistent upon chaperonage of the large group affairs, but did not agree as to the chaperonage necessary for other activities. The only common practices were those relating to college dances, college dinners and banquets, non-dancing parties, and to girls calling on men at their rooming houses.

A survey of chaperonage in fifty-four normal schools and teachers' colleges (588, 1930), published two years later, obtained similar results. The large group affairs were usually chaperoned. The small groups were less frequently chaperoned, and the very small groups, such as those engaged in shopping, dining in public, attending the theater, and automobile riding, were almost never chaperoned. Marked variation in practice was reported in different parts of the country.

C. CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

Service and social groups do not fall into two distinct categories, for the service groups have social values in the narrow as well as in the broad sense and the groups that are primarily social frequently render services to the school and the community.

Of the many social groups those of a casual or transitory nature, being more like social groupings in life, deserve the personnel worker's most expert attention. Evidences of inadequacies in conversation and other social skills indicate the need of instruction and practice in natural situations. One kind of social contact that many students desire is that with faculty members and interesting adults in the community.

Hobby clubs, which might be included here or in another category, are valuable avenues of adjustment for many students.

Fraternities and sororities are the most highly organized and closely knit social groups on the campus. As far back as 1910 Faunce (187, 1910) defined four possible attitudes toward college fraternities. The first was the attitude of prohibition and suppression—"off with their heads." The second was the attitude of ignoring their existence. The third was the attitude of reform and involved faculty direction of fraternity action. The fourth attitude, recommended by the writer of the article, was one of sympathetic understanding, constant consultation and endeavor to enlist fraternity support in the

best movements in college life. The latter attitude might lead to the ultimate absorption of fraternities as an intrinsic part of college life.

During the past thirty years certain tendencies with respect to fraternities can be discerned. One of these tendencies is the integration of the fraternity with college life as a whole. The older cleavage between "Greeks" and "Barbarians" is becoming imperceptible, as fraternities contribute increasingly to college activities, as non-fraternity groups offer to all students many of the same advantages as the fraternity, and as many students voluntarily decide not to belong to the social fraternity. Another tendency is that toward improved scholarship in the fraternity. Recent investigations report relatively low scholarship among fraternity members less frequently than earlier studies. Still another tendency is the co-operative consideration of fraternity problems by representatives of the fraternities and of the college. This process of joint deliberation has probably contributed to the reduction of social frustration, to more wholesome and stimulating living conditions, and to greater attention to the best development of individual students.

D. RESEARCH NEEDED

Because research in some of these areas is extremely difficult is no reason why we should be content with quick, easy, and fictitious solutions of the problems in them. In some way qualitative and quantitative techniques must be integrated and the complexities that exist in social phenomena recognized.

Of basic importance is inquiry into the sociological and psychological soundness of some of the social conventions to which students are expected to conform. Personnel workers, instead of directing all their efforts to helping students conform to superficial social demands, should devote part of their time to a study of the origins, development, and influence of common conventions and, more narrowly, of certain school and college social traditions, rules, and regulations.

The study of how thinking with respect to social situations actually proceeds is an equally important field for research. First some social situation should be adequately described or dramatized and other relevant data relating to it provided. Then subjects may be asked to carry the situation to what they consider to be its satisfactory conclusion. In the process of doing this, their ways of thinking through a social situation for the purpose of "acting on thinking" may be discovered. From the service aspect such a procedure would offer opportunities to help an individual student or members of a

group improve their technic of thinking effectively in practical social situations.

Another type of research that is needed in this area is the development of a social maturity scale, extending into adult years. Research already done on behavior that differentiates the socially successful from the socially unsuccessful person supplies some basic information for constructing a tentative form of scale. In his enthusiasm for objectivity and precision the investigator should not lose sight of the complexity of this problem. Rating on such a scale should be highly flexible, allowing for individual differences in the persons to be rated and in the social environment which, under different conditions, sanctions varied kinds of behavior. With the aid of such a scale ranges of behavior normal to each age and sequences normal to apparently good adjustment may be studied and factual evidence of the alleged socializing effect of student activities measured.

Environment-centered case studies, made with a sociological approach, would throw light on the way members of groups thus exposed to the same environmental stimuli behave.

More intensive studies may be made of certain kinds of social behavior. For example, evidence could be systematically collected on the types of situation which tend to provoke laughter, or fear, or aggression, or apathy within specific social groups. This type of investigation might take the form of an experimentally controlled situation in which reactions of members of an organized group might be observed and compared with reactions evoked by the same stimuli in individuals or in unorganized groups. The objection to this type of research lies in the difficulty of evoking deep-seated attitudes and tendencies in a laboratory situation. Even in such an artificial situation, however, exact methods of investigation may be developed which can be applied in a wider natural social setting.

CHAPTER VI

ESTHETIC AND RELIGIOUS GROUP EXPERIENCES

ACCORDING to Dewey (145, 1934), both esthetic and religious experience may arise out of any situation. If this be true, the group-work leader should be aware of the esthetic and religious potentialities of all aspects of school and college life. Probably everyone has a deep-seated desire for religious experience and for creative self-expression. These desires may be fulfilled through both solitude and fellowship, and through the mediums of drama, music, and art.

A. ESTHETIC EXPERIENCES

I. ESTHETIC POTENTIALITIES OF THE ENVIRONMENT

The student's environment may be used as a laboratory for developing sensitivity to beauty in everyday things and a realization of the interdependence of beauty and utility. Rooms in the residence hall, in rooming houses, or in private homes offer opportunities for students to develop an appreciation of color and design. However, unless groups of students, under the competent leadership of members of the fine arts, home economics, and industrial arts faculties, observe and discuss residence hall furnishings, textiles, and pottery, and ensembles in rooms or dresses, much of the value of distinctive surroundings will be lost.

Even more effective in developing practical appreciation is the active participation of students in the improvement of their surroundings. Again, under the guidance of qualified teachers, students may be encouraged to assemble touches of bright color, such as pillows for a couch, for part of a living room. They may enrich a wall space with pictures or textiles, or select a single piece of pottery or material for curtains that will add distinction to a nondescript room. If they like to work with their hands, they may transform an old chair of essentially good lines by refinishing the woodwork and recovering the back and seat. It will be a revelation to many students to observe the magic effect on a room of adding color to a textile by brushing into it oil paints mixed with gasoline, or of tie-dyeing hangings or pillow covers, or of changing the color tone of a lampshade by tint-

ing the inside surface. Any of these attempts to make their environment more beautiful may take the form of vital small-group projects.

Equally intriguing is the application of the principles of color and form to their own clothing. Groups are interested in seeing demonstrations of ways in which a girl's good features can be enhanced through skillful selection of color and line, and how a commonplace dress may be enlivened through the use of accessories. These are only a few of the practical ways in which essentials of art may be incorporated into the daily living of students.

Social events may also serve in part as projects in art appreciation. For example, in planning a tea, one committee may assume responsibility for creating a harmonious and hospitable arrangement of furniture in one corner of the room. Another group may plan a table setting and refreshments that have beauty and distinction at a low cost, and still another committee may discuss costumes which the hostesses might wear to enhance the attractiveness of the room as a whole.

Museums, shops, exhibits, and sometimes private homes in the community may be used to call attention to the unusual and the distinctive in art. The practice school of the college may be a means of giving students an appreciation of children's art. Books and pictures will acquaint them with the beauty of folk art and masterpieces of painting and sculpture. The value of such activities is enhanced by engaging in them in small congenial groups.

Before students leave high school and college they should become associated with community agencies through which they can progressively increase their appreciation and performance in the arts. Art galleries, libraries, and museums are eager to have their services utilized. They require only the co-operation of the schools in making the initial contacts with boys and girls. Authorities in one museum, for example, request that any student who shows marked ability in art be referred to them for special instruction. Other centers encourage visits from school children and send lantern slides, motion pictures, paintings, and other exhibits to the schools. Invitations to use cultural centers in the communities are extended by radio and newspapers.

A large number of books and articles attest the widespread interest in the development of the arts in American private life (17, 1935; 82, 1935; 317, 1933; 337, 1934; 604, 1934). Through such aesthetic stimulants and experiences life becomes more complete and satisfying.

2. GROUP WORK IN THE CREATIVE MANUAL ARTS

The esthetic and therapeutic values of creative work have already been discussed on pages 23, 24. Handiwork is being increasingly used with groups as an avenue of adjustment and a constructive outlet (552, 1940) for self-expression and release of tension.

The service aspect as well as the aspect of individual development enters into this area of aesthetic expression. The help of students who possess special talents is frequently sought. They may contribute to group enterprises by designing and painting scenery or planning color schemes for costumes or lighting effects for the dramatic club. They may be called upon to make posters for advertising various school activities, or even for civic affairs.

3. GROUP ACTIVITIES INVOLVING MUSIC

Some group activities in the field of music provide for orderly growth in skills, comprehension, and appreciation. Other activities are primarily social. Although persons show marked differences in musical capacity, they all have some degree of musical interest which may be developed. Accordingly, musical groups should provide opportunities for a wide range of interest and abilities. Fremmer (209, 1935) suggested the following activities, arranged according to the degree of musicianship each activity demands, and beginning with the lowest:

1. Stunt song club—open only to those who do not play a musical instrument and who do not belong to the glee clubs.
2. Harmonica club—open to entire student body.
3. Banjo club—open to banjo players of required degree of proficiency.
4. Music literature club—open to entire student body.
5. Music science club—open to all aspirants.
6. Creative instrument club—open to all aspirants.
7. Glee clubs—open to selected group.
8. Informal music club—membership limit depending upon size of school and school hall.
9. Bands and orchestras—a beginners' and advanced.
10. Composers' club—open to all aspirants.

As general and specific aims of these group activities, Fremmer lists the following:

1. To provide pleasurable social contacts and to promote a desire for those which will carry over into adult life.
2. To cultivate desirable social attitudes and group life.

3. To provide an outlet for emotional expression.
4. To open up a wider horizon in the field of music.
5. To give that stimulus to individual effort which comes from group contacts.
6. To further the acquisition of a worthwhile hobby.
7. To foster a love for the best in music.
8. To increase the joy in participation in the re-creation of beauty.
9. To promote growth in taste and understanding.
10. To give an opportunity for self-evaluation.
11. To promote intimate acquaintance with worthy compositions.
12. To improve technique.
13. To obtain a grasp of significance in melody, harmony, rhythm, timbre, form, and texture.
14. To provide firsthand experience of perhaps our most important sonorous body, the orchestra.
15. To develop a craftsman's insight into the musical.

Numerous articles have been written on the technical aspects of specific musical groups. For example, detailed standards, for college and university bands based on a study of fifty-four institutions, are set forth by Buckton (74, 1929). There should be clearer differentiation of function between concert and military bands, and better provision should be made for financing the band.

In many schools and colleges certain musical groups are among the most popular activities. From membership in those which are suited to his talent and training, the individual student may gain pleasure, fellowship, and, in some cases, vocational preparation.

4. DRAMATICS

Dramatics have long been one of the most popular of student activities. Their popularity is justified. Not only do dramatics result in wholehearted enjoyment, but they also may contribute to personal poise, through increased skill in the use of one's voice and body, and to the release of tension through the expression of emotion. Through the vicarious experience of impersonating human beings who love, hate, rejoice, and feel frustrated, dramatics may lead to insight into one's own problems and those of his fellows. Moreover, since a dramatic performance demands the co-operation of many persons of varied abilities, it is inherently socializing and democratic. It is by their contribution to the intellectual, emotional, and social development of students that dramatics must ultimately be judged.

Subject matter walls may be broken down through undifferenti-

ated participation in producing a play. Students with training in the manual arts may construct scenery and properties; others in the household arts departments may assume responsibility for costuming and domestic scenery. The music department may direct certain parts of a play as well as provide an orchestral accompaniment. By writing plays to be produced, by handling the publicity, and by serving as dramatic critics, students in English classes may make an important contribution to the success of the performance.

Surveys of dramatic clubs in high schools (179, 1929; 369, 1929; 433, 1933; 464, 1934) indicate that dramatic opportunities vary widely in the high schools of America and that dramatics rank high among student activities in high schools.

Some of the problems of this type of group activity have been specifically mentioned in the literature on the subject. Among these problems are lack of suitable stage and equipment and insufficient time allotted to dramatics—with the result that students are forced to spend a disproportional amount of their free time on this activity. Another problem is that of setting up requirements for membership and of guiding the student in selecting the dramatic club which is best suited to his talents and needs. As an aid in such guidance Miller (404, 1938) proposed placement tests to detect and measure dramatic talent. Of the various tests used—the Otis *General Intelligence Scale*, the Inglis *Test of English Vocabulary*, the Downey *Will-Temperament Test*, the Almack *Sense of Humor Test*, the Pressey *X-O Test*, the Bernreuter *Personality Inventory*, the Allport-Vernon *Study of Values*—none clearly differentiated between students rated high and those rated low on "ability in dramatic interpretation" by at least two judges who had had opportunity to observe the student's performance. There seems to be little reason for employing any of the tests other than the vocabulary and intelligence tests. A more fruitful approach to the problem appears to be an analysis of ratings or observations of student actors made by dramatic coaches.

A great variety of dramatic activities have been offered to high school and college students, covering a range from informal discussion of plays and motion pictures to a highly finished performance. Dramatic tournaments (326, 1936) involve problems accompanying competitive activities in general: expense of traveling, disruption of routine, and the diverting of interest from widespread joy in participation to a tense desire to win, on the part of a relatively small number of students. These and other disadvantages are likely to

overbalance the stimulation alleged to be the major value of competitive performances.

An increasingly popular form of dramatics is the puppet show. Like other group activities, this form of club has its specific potentialities. Stevenson (542, 1935) pointed out the social, cultural, character, vocational, and avocational values of the puppet club, and added a bibliography of helpful books regarding puppets. He claimed that very few clubs offer as great possibilities as do the puppet groups for the development of habits of critical analysis, powers of evaluation, mechanical aptitude and interest, appreciation of artisanship, personal responsibility, unselfish service, self-directed effort, and a love of beauty. The finished product represents the application of knowledge gained in various departments. He suggested having an exhibition and group puppet show at the end of the year, and an informal exhibition with impromptu puppet performances once a month.

One of the most promising developments of dramatics on the college level is the civic university theater (184, 1937). Such an enterprise has the value of bringing the university students in close contact with the community, to the mutual benefit of both college and community. The civic university theater should offer plays which have significance and dimension, and illustrate current trends in American drama. Civic groups as well as college students should be offered opportunity for dramatic expression, and a children's theater should be part of the scheme. Periodically, a professional company of distinction should be employed to help sustain a high level of appreciation and performance.

In support of the generalization that interest in community recreation should be built before students leave school, Perry (448, 1933) offered the information that 106 of 789 Little Theatre Groups had high school connections, with selection for membership being dependent upon outstanding work on the part of the students.

The lack of research on many vital phases of dramatics is obvious. Even the surveys of existing conditions are few in number and do not include an adequate representation of schools. There is, therefore, a need for defining the nature and scope of educational dramatics, determining the place of these activities in the curriculum, and developing procedures for achieving their alleged values.

5. MOTION PICTURES

The motion picture and the radio are two of the most popular forms of recreation in the United States. With all their faults they

have a potential contribution to make to aesthetic education. There is much of good as well as much of ill inherent in them. For that reason they present a challenge rather than an unmitigated menace, as some would believe.

Both the motion picture and the radio are widespread in their influence. It has been estimated that forty to sixty millions in America attend the motion pictures every week (4, 1937). Of this total probably at least eleven million are children.

Practically all children of all classes go to the movies. The frequency with which they go is determined by such factors as home environment, parental supervision, directed interest, and finances. But they go. Some attend only occasionally and when accompanied by parents or other adult members of the family. A larger number attend when and how they choose. But they all go as a matter of course. . . . Of the 10,052 children studied there were only 168 or 1.7 per cent of them who reported that they did not go to the movies at all (406:18, 1929).

Enormous sums are spent on motion pictures. Pack (436:57, 1934) estimated that "every day more than twenty million people in this country pay admission to motion picture theaters." The people in the United States spend as much for commercialized amusement, including motion pictures, as they do for food.

The effects of the motion picture on children have been most extensively studied by the Committee on Educational Research financed by the Payne Fund (527, 1933). Although some of the data are subject to the common errors of the questionnaire method, other more objective methods were employed, and some of the research reports recognize the complexity of the problem.

The following are among the most significant findings:

Children of all ages tend to accept as authentic what they see in the movies.

They remember a great deal.

Children remembered best parts that were concerned with sports, general conversation, crime, and fighting, when these had a high emotional tone and were in familiar surroundings.

Scenes of danger, conflict, or tragedy produce the greatest effect as measured by the galvanometer upon children from six to twelve years of age, much less on adolescents, and still less on adults.

Scenes, romantic and erotic, on the other hand, affect the younger children least and the adolescents most; the peak seems to come at about sixteen years. There are marked individual differences, however, within each group.

A relatively large per cent of mentally retarded children and a larger proportion of delinquent than of nondelinquent boys attend the movies frequently. We must not, however, get the impression that all of the aspects of motion pictures are negative. Some motion pictures offer opportunities for students to become inspired and informed.

Shuttleworth and May say in conclusion :

That the movies exert an influence there can be no doubt. But it is our opinion that this influence is specific for a given child and a given movie. The same picture may influence different children in distinctly opposite directions. Thus in a general survey . . . the net effect appears small. We are also convinced that, among the most frequent attendants, the movies are drawing children who are in some way mal-adjusted and whose difficulties are relieved only in the most temporary manner (527:92-93, 1933).

As the motion picture is only one of many influences affecting boys and girls, school instruction may neutralize the influence of a picture. By instruction in motion picture criticism and appreciation, the student may be helped to dominate his movie experiences instead of being possessed by them (347, 1934).

Various technics for developing student standards for motion picture evaluation have been employed by classes and clubs over the United States. McCullough (365, 1939) listed the following activities reported by forty classes and forty clubs in twenty-three states :

1. Learning how to operate projection machines.
2. Making scrapbooks of the best reviews of motion pictures.
3. Reviewing, recommending, and publicizing the best films.
4. Discussing movies seen by members of the club.
5. Engaging in impromptu pantomimes.
6. Writing scenarios.
7. Producing amateur movies.
8. Having panel discussions on such topics as "Must there be a happy ending?" "How to shop for movies," "The ten best pictures of the year."
9. Comparing modern films with those of ancient vintage.
10. Inviting speakers.

Eldridge (169, 1938) described a method of making possible the showing of worthwhile films on a self-supporting basis. Accordingly, in addition to previewing, discussing, and publicizing outstanding films appearing in local theaters, members of the photoplay club paid dues of fifty cents and took responsibility for selecting,

ordering, and showing films of educational value in the school assembly. Members of the club could attend free and nonmembers paid a ten-cent fee. Frequently the film was discussed by some expert in the field and sometimes co-ordinated with classroom projects.

Over two thousand photoplay clubs in the United States have been "formed primarily to develop an appreciation of commercial motion pictures" (194:769, 1938). In one of these clubs (194, 1938) interest in the making of films developed. The students collected pictures of Hollywood cameramen in action; they read books and magazines on film technic, and acquired motion picture cameras. Their first film was a school newsreel. Later they made a successful film of Red Cross activities. Through this club the members developed skill in the making of motion pictures and the community became better acquainted with one of its service organizations. Thus by means of amateur films made by groups of students the school and the community were brought more closely together.

6. THE RADIO

Like the motion picture, listening to the radio is an experience common to practically all high school and college students. The Federal Census of 1930 reported 12,078,345 families owning radio sets. On January 1, 1932, according to estimate there were 16,026,620 sets in use in the United States. There were 598 American broadcasting stations on June 30, 1933. In the *World Almanac*, 1941, the total radio sets in use in the United States on December 1, 1940, is stated as 52,000,000.

Both motion pictures and radio have a number of disadvantages from the standpoint of individual development. First, they involve little active participation. In the majority of cases the motivation is commercial rather than educational, selfish rather than altruistic. Second, they are, for the most part, not prepared specifically for the juvenile population. Third, they tend to substitute daydreams for reality. Thus, instead of giving young people an increasing sense of reality and an ability to cope with it, they preclude the practice that makes the attainment of success in the real world difficult. Thus the "curriculum" of the motion picture and the radio often conflicts with the school curriculum.

Although, like the motion pictures, the radio has many negative aspects, it also has great potential values. The radio may contribute to "worthy home membership" and aesthetic development. The experience of listening to the radio with older and younger members of the family may increase the solidarity of the home. The unprece-

dented opportunities for hearing the finest music, the messages of famous people, the dramatization of literature, the facts of science, the news of the world—these and other opportunities make the radio a most important instrument of education.

This widespread use of the radio demands skillful guidance for the young. As in the case of motion pictures, not all children are affected in the same way by the same programs. They not only have different tastes but also different needs and different capacities to utilize various experiences in developing social and aesthetic sensitivity and understanding. But unless students learn to use discrimination in choosing their recreational activities, the free curriculum of the air and the offerings of commercialized amusements may neutralize the effect of formal education.

Several specific means of harnessing these forces for educational purposes will now be briefly described. One of the best examples of the use of radio for the new leisure time is the groups arranged for listening and discussion. This has been done extensively in Indianapolis and Minneapolis libraries. The groups number about forty members, which meet about twenty minutes before the scheduled broadcast, for which the members have been prepared in advance by a list of questions, reading lists, and general information which seems pertinent to the broadcast. The period which follows the broadcast has been very productive of lively discussions. The radio discussion groups have been effective in bringing groups into the primary group relationship, and of centering a sustained interest around a particular problem. This procedure provides fresh interest, brings a person-to-person relationship, acquaints the listeners with men and women of prestige in the field, adds to the feeling of importance of the study because of the number listening, and provides general information where printed material is lacking. In Kentucky, where a similar project has been carried on, timely information is thus brought to remote groups which are not served by daily newspapers. In order to be successful, such groups should be organized on the basis of a common interest in a particular subject and for the purpose of listening to a particular broadcast. Advance materials should be supplied the listeners. This group listening plan has distinct advantages, and contains many of the necessary elements in converting leisure time into channels which give social advantages and which are broadening to personality development. It brings members of a community into a closer relationship and provides the necessary outlets for group contacts (592, 1934).

The group listening plan is applicable to the classroom, clubroom,

or dormitory. The teacher must make careful preparation so that the students are equipped to get the most out of the program. Through the radio students have the advantage of a first-class teacher in the field. In these ways the student in high school as well as the parent in the adult listening groups can be guided into an understanding of the rich possibilities for social development inherent in the best radio programs.

As in the motion picture field, the radio offers opportunities for creative work as well as for spectator participation. A number of high school and college groups give various kinds of radio programs. For example, a high school broadcasting club (263, 1939) gained enough experience during the year through giving fifteen-minute broadcasts at the local station to take over the responsibility for completely staffing and managing the radio broadcasting station for a day. This project furnished an exceptional tryout experience along many lines of radio work.

The motion picture and radio are illustrations of how modern recreation has become increasingly secondary in nature. One seldom sees the actors in person. The individuals in the audience do not as a rule know each other, nor do they endeavor to contact each other except for small groups who go to the theater together. This mass recreation involves secondary rather than personal contacts (429, 1933).

Obviously, the problem of education is to make these two potent avenues of learning its ally rather than its enemy.

B. RELIGIOUS EXPERIENCES

Diversely worded definitions of religion have two ideas in common—the idea of unification and abundance of life and the idea of the evaluation of life in terms of a God whose attributes are goodness, truth, beauty, justice, and brotherhood. At one extreme is the metaphysical emphasis; at the other, a definition of practical morality.

I. THE NATURE OF RELIGIOUS EXPERIENCES

The one great religious problem of all mankind is the application throughout the length and breadth of human relationships of the ardor and devotion commonly associated with religion (146, 1934). Dewey continues, more specifically, with the idea that "any activity pursued in behalf of an ideal end against obstacles and in spite of threats of personal loss, because of conviction of its general and enduring value, is religious in quality" (146:27, 1934). Already a shift has taken place from specialized religious education to the atti-

tude that "life lived at its best is religious." In its extreme form this attitude implies that religion is merely a by-product of education. As a reaction against this extreme point of view, many religious educators have re-emphasized the need for a background of religious knowledge, as well as experiences through which a religious way of living can be discovered and practiced.

As the concept of religion has broadened, it has implied a change in the program of religious education. Instead of a separate religious program, the religious spirit should permeate campus activities. In this sense religion is "a certain way of looking at all things." Religious education cannot be considered apart from general education. It is, rather, an aspect of general education.

Such religious education, however, cannot be left to chance. It probably requires more insight and psychological acumen than any other phase of education. Unskillfully handled, religious instruction may cause serious conflict. Undesirable feelings of guilt may be aroused; or an overdependence on God may be substituted for reasonable effort at reaching one's individual adjustment, and become a means of escape from reality; moral standards may be divorced from social relations. Instead of these negative experiences, a positive, functional approach should be made. Conscience will then be considered as "the internalization within the individual of the social organization which enables him to direct his own life without external compulsion"; moral standards become "a function of our social relationships, particularly to those whom we account most worthy of love and honor, and whose authority we accept"; religion is thought of as an "attempt at orientation with reference to the ultimate issues of life"; sin, "a breach of trust as regards the ultimate loyalties"; repentance, "the first step in the process of salvation" (47:17, 1940).

Students should recognize the fact that religious thought and ethics have undergone evolution and are still changing. Like everything else in the universe, our system of beliefs has reached its present stage of development by transformation of the old. The new is produced by "creative synthesis"—the process by which new combinations of old elements are made. Gestalt psychologists reject the idea of the workings of blind mechanism.

It is because science regards ethics as a natural phenomenon that it can hope to determine the cause of unethical behavior and thus attempt to improve ethics by controlling those causes. This is the way in which progress has been made in the past (113:300, 1939).

Several additional quotations express certain modern concepts of religion better than the author could. In the following quotation Conklin emphasized the personal and social nature of religion:

Freedom is invariably measured by the extent to which remembered experience influences behavior . . . intelligence is this capacity of profiting by remembering experiences (113:298, 1939).

Finally, the highest level of human development is attained when purpose and freedom, joined to social emotions, training and habits, shape behavior not only for personal but also for social satisfactions, for *society no less than the individual is seeking satisfactions*, and when all these things combine, we have what we call ethics, or the science of right conduct. Thus ethics is born and man becomes a free moral agent—not absolutely free, of course, nor absolutely moral, but an agent of limited capacity and responsibility, who has developed under natural laws from a condition which is neither free nor moral not responsible. . . . Man has had a three-fold evolution (113:299, 300, 1939)—physical, mental, social.

In conclusion, evolution does not destroy the dignity of man. His real dignity does not depend upon the method of his origin; it does depend upon the fact that he was once a germ cell and then an embryo and then an infant. *It depends upon what he is capable of becoming*, the possibilities of his development. There is where the real dignity of man is found. This is what makes him more dignified than the dog or the horse or the plant; he is capable of going farther in his development than these other living creatures (113:300, 1939).

"The yesterdays demand attention only in so far as they are determining the tomorrows" (47:17, 1940).

Probably the most important ethical and religious code in history is the Decalogue of Moses, which was summarized by Jesus in the two great commandments, "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, soul, and mind, and thy neighbor as thyself." If for the person of Deity there be substituted the qualities of Deity, namely, truth, justice, mercy, love, these are the commands of science as well as of religion. Likewise, the Golden Rule is the simplest and at the same time the most universally practicable rule of ethics ever proposed: "Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them" (113:302, 1939).

It is important that students gain perspective—a long-range view of the progress of mankind. There are unequivocal evidences of progress in corporate living or co-operation, in the conquest of disease, in concern for child welfare. At the same time he must recognize that progress is impeded, not by earthquakes, floods, fire,

or other forces in the physical universe but by the persistent injustice, selfishness, hate, envy, fear, and the inhumanity of man himself. In spite of these psychological forces, there still is hope for an eventual brotherhood of seekers after truth, seekers after the welfare of all.

2. IMPORTANCE OF RELIGIOUS ADJUSTMENT

Religious aspects of adjustment are probably more fundamental than educational, vocational, or even social aspects in their narrow sense. Psychiatrists have confirmed this statement on the basis of their work with individuals. Jung (309, 1933) from his experience came to the following conclusion:

Among all my patients in the second half of life—that is to say, over thirty-five—there has not been one whose problem in the last resort was not that of finding a religious outlook on life. It is safe to say that every one of them fell ill because he had lost that which the living religions of every age have given to their followers, and none of them has been really healed who did not regain his religious outlook (309: 264, 1933).

Religious adjustment is part of the person's total adjustment, and religious experience is part of his whole school experience. Mental conflict, as Jung has suggested, may represent, in large measure, failure to achieve a functional philosophy of life—a working value system or pattern. Such a philosophy helps the student to define his relation to worthy goals and thus promote continuity of purpose. A philosophy of life also serves as a measuring rod for the student to evaluate his thinking and acting and helps to unify his personality. The result is a sense of wholeness and security.

A truly functional philosophy develops out of experience. The student enters a new situation with a certain point of view, reviews the relevant aspects of his situation, and emerges with a modified philosophy. Thus a continuous reconstruction of his philosophy takes place. As he grows older, he should learn to live more thoughtfully, taking more and more elements into account and learning to deal with new situations more and more intelligently.

3. RELIGIOUS ATTITUDES AND CHURCH MEMBERSHIP OF ADOLESCENTS

Religious attitudes and convictions of adolescents certainly enter into the development of religious activities in school or college. This subject, however, has been reviewed in another volume (546, 1937).

It may be said in general that college students have a substantial nucleus of traditional belief, and that their expressed opinions may be modified somewhat during college years in the direction of scientific thinking. However, adolescents undergo much confusion and mental conflict in their attempts to resolve early religious teaching and later experience. In fact, the confusion and sense of futility encountered by the student may be an encouraging sign of maturity. Group workers should be aware of these problems and sensitive to the attitudes of individual students in informal groups.

The attitude of most students toward traditional religion appears to be one of indifference, not hostility. They consider religion an unimportant adjunct of their culture rather than a central motivating and directing force in their lives. Many, however, are not irreligious. In fact, religion may be one of their chief topics of conversation. Among students in general, some of their attitudes would be found under each of the following points on a scale:

1. Aversion toward traditional religion.
2. Indifference.
3. Conformity to religious customs, such as church attendance, without gaining any vital benefits.
4. Participation in activities with religious value to themselves and others.
5. Absorption in a narrow type of religious activity.
6. Religious obsession.

As in the case of other student activities, guidance with respect to religious organizations should consider the student's twenty-four-hour schedule (551, 1929). Study, remunerative work, social activities may either supplant, or supplement, or contribute directly to the religious experience of students. A student whose schedule includes membership in no formal religious group may nevertheless be attaining religious maturity.

Church affiliations should also be considered in studying a student's religious development. A comprehensive questionnaire answered anonymously by three hundred students in a mid-Western state university showed that approximately two-thirds of the students claimed church membership (277, 1940)—about the same proportion reported for their fathers and somewhat less than the percentage (82 per cent) reported for their mothers. Less than one-fourth of the entire group reported no church attendance. Horton pointed out that neither membership nor attendance could be considered an adequate indication of interest in the church, since mem-

bership might be the result of parent initiative, and attendance may not represent "psychological participation."

From the standpoint of religious activities in the college, it is significant that the church loses more supporters than it gains among college students, but that many of these drop out of the church before college influences have operated over any appreciable length of time. The assumption may be made that many students have rejected traditional beliefs during high school years, but continue attendance at church "until a change in environment enables them to 'drop out' quietly" (277:217, 1940). Horton further pointed out the importance of helping young people to build

a religious structure that will be less susceptible to repudiation under the impact of increasing knowledge. If the student, and especially the student who is possessed of unusual keenness and penetration, is to retain his religious beliefs without violating his sense of intellectual honesty, he must acquire a religious philosophy that is intellectually defensible (277:219, 1940).

This study, while limited to a single institution, represents admirable critical thinking on the basis of the data obtained.

4. PLACE OF RELIGIOUS EDUCATION IN THE SCHOOLS

The question of the place of religion in schools and colleges has been uppermost in the minds of many people recently, as precipitated by the Coudert-McLaughlin Bill, which requires the release of pupils for religious instruction on the request of the parent. Elliott (172, 1940), in his syllabus for the study of this problem, has suggested an analysis of the present situation, ways of meeting the problem, basic differences and underlying issues, and factors in coming to a decision. Cole (110, 1940) prepared a similar syllabus to guide the thinking of persons interested in higher education.

Seitz (519, 1941) obtained opinions of high school and college students and adults on some aspects of religious education in elementary and high schools. Opinion was, in general, unfavorable to the present program of religious education. The high school students were less critical of the religious teachings in the home, the church, and the school than were college students and adults.

5. COURSES IN RELIGION

For many years numerous courses in religion have been offered in colleges and universities. A survey of Ohio colleges (424, 1940)

showed that thirty-seven different courses were being taught. Instead of this multiplicity of courses, often overlapping and sketchily treated, Norris advocated five basic courses:

1. *Bible*. A course to make clear that the Bible is "the classic record of religious experience and the growth of religious institutions."
2. *Philosophy of Religion*. "An evaluation of the basic beliefs in religion and a consideration of its recurring problems."
3. *Christian Ethics*. "Contemporary problems in individual and group behavior . . . considered in the light of Christian ethics."
4. *History of Religions*. "A survey of the great living religions of the world."
5. *Typical Religious Leaders*. "A biographical course in which the influence of great religious thinkers is presented" (424:267, 1940).

This list of courses could be taught in such a way as to meet the students' request for more "problem-centered courses" and more seminar-type courses in which a preliminary pooling of religious problems would be possible. A co-operatively prepared syllabus introduces the additional value of students and instructor being co-creators of the course.

A survey of religious education in seventy-five colleges (248, 1933) indicated a preponderance of courses in Bible—67 per cent of the 141 required courses in religion. As courses have multiplied, there has been less emphasis on the Bible and more on ethics and philosophy of religion.

The aims of courses in religion have been to acquaint the student with an important phase of his culture, to further his growth in an adequate philosophy of life, to aid him in solving modern problems in the field of human relations, and to correct irrational pre-suppositions about religion. These results demand more than the "comparatively meager and oftentimes weak efforts" made to introduce or to hold religion in the curriculum, and to effect a change of attitude on the part of students toward their "religious illiteracy."

In some instances the teaching of ethics in the classroom has resulted in disillusionment, a dichotomy between theory and practice, and consequent difficulty in adjustment. Instruction should be supplemented by experiences through which students learn to control their lives. "If moral problems are not conceived as social problems, we face an essentially sterile theory of ethics" (518:177, 1932).

6. INFORMAL ACTIVITIES HAVING RELIGIOUS EMPHASIS

"Religion is not complete without group experience; group experience is not complete until it is religious" (27:14, 1939). Informal activities provide opportunities for students to express their religious interests. Student forums and other kinds of discussion groups, as well as service projects, offer students opportunities to objectify their religious beliefs.

On many campuses there is a need to decrease the number of extra-curricular organizations, including those that are religious. It is essential to maintain such activities only so long as they fulfill a vital need. Care should be taken to prevent these activities from degenerating into purely social activities or into instruments for campus recognition. The college church should demonstrate what the vital religious life is that is discussed in the classroom (424:268, 1940).

Services of worship are one of the few specifically religious group activities. Various types of worship services have been developed for the purpose of helping young people to become more fully aware of God and to recognize His presence in every phase of life (183, 1938). The service of worship may feature meditation in the Friends' tradition; drama, either creative or Biblical; music in the form of choral groups or instrumental recitals; and various forms of addresses and oral reading.

7. MEDITATION

In order to maintain a balance between group contacts and solitary pursuits, a student needs some time in his busy schedule for contemplation. He needs to view his life and his specific problems with reference to "the Source and Sustainer of all existence" (613:67, 1940).

The process of meditation has received too little attention as a means of making our philosophy of religion operative. Hart (241, 1939) has made a significant contribution to the development of this important technic. The process of meditation involves a triangular relationship among the object of supreme devotion, the self, and the problem on which meditation is focused. The person engaged in the process must be physically relaxed; he must approach the problem without disturbing emotional tensions and stresses, shunting off thoughts of hate, antagonism, and resentment. He needs to muster the high degree of concentration necessary to keep his attention focused on the problem in the light of a socially valuable and dynamic

purpose. If personnel workers and students would engage in this process, they might gain new direction and insight for action.

8. PERSONAL INFLUENCE: FACULTY AND OTHER STUDENTS

The belief is frequently expressed that the religious life of their teachers is more determinative than courses in its influence on the religious development of students. Only teachers with a deep religious interest, who have themselves gained insight into the meaning of life, can meet the students' need for counseling on religious problems.

Good teaching . . . calls for the fellowship of pupil and teacher in the task of creating a better world through considering together the problems relating to the life situations with which the pupil is concerned. The teacher's effectiveness like that of the psychotherapist is dependent upon the rapport which he is able to establish with his pupil. Only in so far as the pupil learns to trust and admire the teacher will that teacher be able to influence his way of thinking and feeling about things (47:16, 1940).

Great teachers have the capacity for establishing constructive relationships with students and for helping them to see far horizons and to gain deeper insights. Of such teachers, students might say, in Masfield's words, "He was the greatest light that ever shone on me. His word was like light, the darkness went before it."

Any interaction between teacher and student or between group leader and group member, if it is vital and creative, may be a religious experience for the individual. Out of the educational process itself arise meanings, insight, and values.

Just as progressive education has learned a great deal about the nature and capacities of children and the ways by which they learn by watching them at play, so may we learn something of the psychological roots of religion by observing what happens when potential persons are in such a relationship with one another as will permit and stimulate the social progress of creative thinking (249:149, 1939).

Such a religion will never be a mature religion, but will always be a maturing religion. Its "dogmas" will be experimentally derived and subject to change as new light on life's meaning comes through experience. They will not be taught as authoritative truth but acquired by experience and reflection on experience. They will define the most fruitful relationship of men to their world and so serve as the basis of security in doubt and trouble because they are rooted in a perspective which embraces not only the present but the past and the future and because they are concerned with an eternal process and not with a temporal product.

Once such a point of view is agreed upon, small beginnings can be made in any situation in which a leader, so convinced, is with children. It can be made by adopting an attitude toward children and a relationship with them which fulfills the conditions stated. The leader drops the characteristic roles of dictator, instructor, or guide and becomes a catalyst. The New Testament reports of Jesus' activity afford an excellent example. He did not preach or dictate. He asked questions and told stories which helped his hearers to rethink their problems. He never gave anybody anything and even when he exercised his healing power he did so by calling forth in the sick man the will and faith which were the conditions of health. He stimulated people to do things for themselves and never did anything for them. He was a catalyst. Things happened when he was around, not because he had a doctrine to teach or a program to put over or a curriculum to transmit, but because he treated everyone as a person and took the initiative in establishing between himself and others a relationship in which what they did assumed a fresh importance and created self-confidence and self-respect (249:150-151, 1939).

This is the finest description of the role of the group worker this writer has found. But, as Hartshorne pointed out, we want to know the skills and processes by which the results were obtained.

Group activities furnish an excellent opportunity for discovering how growth in religious behavior takes place. Bergson (36, 1935), with that clarity of expression for which he is noted, approaches the problem from within the mind of man and seeks to discover through introspection the source of awareness of moral obligation and sensitivity to the "moral imperative."

According to Hartshorne (249, 1939), the most significant environmental factor in an individual's religious growth is the attitudes of other persons, or rather his interpretation of those attitudes. Accordingly, the way a teacher or a group leader responds to students is exceedingly important. His attitudes toward others, in turn, affect their response to him, thus making the social environment extremely complex and fluid. Out of his relationships with others grows his relationship to God.

We may take Jesus' emphasis on the present as illustrative of the full meaning of the creative relationship of men to one another—a relationship which is experienced in the fulfillment of both law and prophesy because it includes both God and man in an ethical unity of such overwhelmingly present significance as to overshadow both the past and the future (249:145-46, 1939).

A simple but effective approach to the study of campus religious leaders was made by Uphaus (597, 1935). His method was to ask

a number of professors and Y.M.C.A. secretaries in various colleges and universities to "draw portraits of the most influential undergraduates that they ever knew." To guide their thinking he asked them to include information under the following heads:

(1) Background; (2) Bodily Health, Psychic Make-up, and Social Maturity; (3) Intellectual and Spiritual Awareness; (4) Oneness; (5) Expression; (6) Perspective; and (7) then, by way of summary, the question, "Just what is it about the fellow you have in mind that 'gets' you?" (597:117, 1935).

Description in each of these areas was further stimulated by such questions as "In what ways does he [the leader] indicate awareness of the campus resources available?" The descriptive accounts were obviously influenced by the detailed questions asked. The composite portrait that emerged was one of a student from a middle-class home of religious ideals and practices. He usually had brothers and sisters and had been active in the neighborhood church, Hi-Y Club, or other worthy organizations. He was well and strong, purposeful, a "hale fellow well-met," and with numerous and varied interests. In such an exploratory study it would have been valuable to have obtained leader portraits uninfluenced by the investigator's frame of reference. Then he would have been more likely to obtain the dominant and striking characteristics. Such an exploratory study might be followed by a check list based on the characteristics initially discovered and obtained from a sufficiently large group of students in positions of leadership and of "non-leaders."

9. EXAMPLES OF CO-ORDINATED PROGRAMS OF RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

The religious program at Rollins College (587, 1940) illustrates the opportunities for religious education in the formal class discussions which take place as part of the regular curriculum. The evolution that is still going on in every area of knowledge and life is emphasized, and intimate class discussion contributes to the student's authentic religious background, which helps him to interpret the universe in its social as well as its physical aspects.

The aims of special courses in religion are to "give meaning and interpretation to these several fields of learning, to help students establish their religious identity, their values and life purposes which will be adequate in view of such a modern framework" (587:210-11, 1940). Through the experiences in all his classes and other college activities it is hoped that the student will discover for himself that

God must have a place in this evolving universe, that science and religion supplement each other, that man is an agent of God in achieving higher values, and that prayer is a medium of meditation, reflection, analysis, and even research.

In the high school specifically religious organizations are usually found allied to the school rather than a part of the school program. The Northeast Junior Hi-Y in Kansas City (151, 1939) is an excellent example. The three Junior Hi-Y clubs have been a factor in the school life, having a total membership of seventy-five and including a much larger number in many of their events. Among the activities are community service projects, informal suppers and breakfasts, more formal events in which parents and faculty participate, swims and recreational activities, discussions, special talks and demonstrations, movies, and visual aids to personal and mental hygiene. The specifically religious aspects are the ritualistic induction services, devotional services, and talks and discussions focused on religious problems. A democratic atmosphere prevails in these clubs, and the maximum of opportunities for leadership as officers and committee members and chairmen are offered.

Experience in working with these groups for nine years has made clear the following contributions:

1. The stimulation of "closer individual and social values and relationships" through "a religious, informal, and democratic atmosphere."
2. The development of a sense of worth, freedom, and security through the religious and conference approaches, often lacking in the large public high school.
3. Increased skill, on the part of members, in planning programs as a result of their participation.
4. Integration of organizations in the school and the community.
5. Increased interest and participation of the school faculty in informal activities.
6. Guidance of individuals whose needs are revealed through the group-work process.
7. Increased interest in young people, on the part of teachers, businessmen, and other persons in the community.

At George School, Pennsylvania (279, 1941), the religious education program includes many group activities. In addition to the silent meeting held twice a week and the few moments of silence every morning during assembly, in the Quaker tradition, there are Sunday assemblies in which prominent persons speak and take part

in informal discussions with students. Other informal discussions are arranged on a voluntary basis on Sunday afternoons. One meeting a year to discuss religious matters is for both parents and children. Contact with the community is obtained through attending conferences in the neighborhood, dealing with social and civic problems.

The leadership of this program is assumed by the teacher of religion, who works through a student-faculty committee. This committee selects speakers for the Sunday morning assemblies and deals "with matters of organization and order" in the meetings.

Opportunities for service are offered through the girls' social guild, which co-operates with social agencies in neighborhood communities. Some of the more mature students assist in the religious education program of a church in the neighborhood. Co-ordinated with the program of specific religious activities are the religious points of view discussed in many classes and the counseling on personal religious problems.

The program of religious instruction developed at the University of Michigan (503, 1934) provides three types of experience:

1. Personal trial, observation, and practice in communal living.
2. Study of human experience of a religious nature.
3. Counsel and personal guidance.

Under the supervision of advanced students and instructors the undergraduates are given firsthand contact with problems arising in communal living. This contact is followed by discussions in seminars. Instruction in religion deals with such subjects as the nature of religious experience, the history of religions, and the philosophy of religious thinkers. These courses are scheduled as general university offerings, not in a separate department, which might tend to professionalize a field that should be an intrinsic part of general education. The counselor not only confers with individual students but also serves as a liaison officer between the university and the churches, helping the student to make beneficial community contacts and the church to develop activities to meet the needs of students. This program is designed to give students a basis for and practice in creative thinking and an appreciation of human values.

Bower (51, 1941) briefly described four methods of making education eventuate in religious behavior. The first and most important is through "participation in a group or groups in which religious attitudes are vitally operative" (51:6, 1941). The second process is "through helping persons at each level of growth to face their con-

crete and personal problems in the light of religious ideals and values" (51:7, 1941). The third aspect

has to do with the formal initiation of the young into their total culture. . . . Without violating the principle of the separation of church and state, the public school and colleges should deal objectively and sympathetically with religious thought, behavior, and institutions where they are normally encountered in literature, history, the social sciences, and philosophy in the curriculum (51:7, 1941).

Finally, religious education may be accomplished through the fourth process of

the conscious and intentional commitment of growing persons to a cause or causes that are capable of kindling the imagination, evoking the emotions and enlisting whole-hearted devotion (51:7, 1941).

Certainly group workers share a large part of the responsibility for employing these processes in deepening and broadening the student's religious experiences, and through these experiences his spiritual values.

C. CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

In the areas of both aesthetic and religious experience development seems to be taking place along several lines. First is the emphasis on the esthetic or the religious quality of any experience; second is the integration of special courses in esthetics and religion with other fields of knowledge; and third is the development of special informal groups with esthetic or religious emphasis.

The many articles in these two fields have been almost exclusively descriptive or philosophical. Both esthetic appreciation and religious vitality defy measurement. Esthetic appreciation may be implied in the kind and quality of activities in which students engaged. But this is not an accurate indication in many instances. Church or chapel attendance cannot be considered to be a reliable index of religious vitality. Even voluntary attendance at meetings of religious organizations may indicate a social rather than a religious interest. The most dependable evidence will probably be obtained through observation of students and casual conversation with them in informal situations, and through their comments during the counseling process.

The effectiveness of religious education can best be evaluated in terms of the individual student's increase in sensitivity and responsiveness. That is religious development. It is the responsibility of the leader of religious activities to provide conditions that make such growth possible.

D. RESEARCH NEEDED

Research in this area must be approached cautiously, avoiding the error of attempting to measure the unmeasurable. Perhaps the best we can do is to study a situation as a whole and note any changes that take place after some change of policy or procedure in the esthetic or religious program has been made. This type of research is likely to be more rewarding than an attempt to find a specific cause for a specific outcome. From such study the social and personal values of esthetic and religious experiences may be clarified. Do these experiences, as is commonly assumed, help to maintain morale, relieve tension, make individuals more sensitive to beauty, and increase emotional stability?

An especially interesting research would be based on case studies of persons who had made radically different choices or who had conformed to the mores to different degrees—for example, case studies of girls who had maintained a conventional attitude toward men and those who had disregarded conventional morality.

A more extensive study might be undertaken to trace the development of social, religious, and esthetic behavior patterns and the processes by which they were built.

CHAPTER VII

ACADEMIC INTEREST GROUPS AND ATHLETICS

A LARGE number of clubs are closely associated with the curriculum, as an extra-class activity, an "interclass" activity, or a planned part of the school day. These groups vary greatly in their emphasis. At one extreme is a group primarily concerned with promoting sociability; at the other extreme is a group deeply interested in a subject, sometimes with vocational intent. One club will be conducted very informally, while another will resemble the traditional subject matter class. In these clubs the problem of exclusiveness is not likely to be acute because the major requirement for membership is interest in a particular area of knowledge or skill.

A. DEPARTMENTAL CLUBS

Certain clubs are definitely departmental. They are excrescences of subject matter classes, sometimes growing out of the class, sometimes feeding into the class, usually enriching the curriculum in that field. A few of these clubs will be briefly described.

I. ENGLISH CLUBS

To English clubs have been attributed many educational values. In addition to the values common to student groups in general, the English club offers opportunities for varied reading and the discussion and enjoyment of books in social situations. If the programs of the club are sometimes shared with larger groups as, for example, in assembly and at parents' meetings, the service value will be added to the personal development aspect.

Of two types of club—the omnibus program usually given the name of "Literary Society" and the specialized dramatic, scribblers, booklovers, and similar clubs—the latter are replacing the former. Specialization may be carried further by forming clubs of different levels of proficiency, each with its own standards. In this way provision will be made for students who merely seek a wholesome type of relaxation and recreation as well as for those who are gifted in writing and have already gone far in literary appreciation.

Zachar (647, 1938) described briefly a number of activities in

which junior high school students engaged with apparent enthusiasm in club meetings salvaged from their regular English periods. The following types of activities appealed greatly to these boys and girls:

1. Dramatizations: impromptu dramatizations of stories they had heard or read, the writing and acting of original plays, pantomimes of literary scenes and characters, and selection of plays for a graduation or assembly program.
2. Musical-literary programs: literature-music programs, opera programs, musical favorites in solo and orchestral recordings, and solo and group music.
3. Language activities: panel discussions, storytelling contests, spelling bees, formal debates, conversation and discussion, and toasts.
4. Literary activities: author programs and programs devoted to "such literary themes as humorous poetry, 'sound' poetry, poetry of war and peace, sea poems, and various types of stories" (647:127, 1938).

Many of the programs were arranged by a committee of students without any suggestions from the teacher. Two committees assumed responsibility for acquainting the class with good radio programs and motion pictures. In view of the widespread interest of out-of-school youth in radio and motion pictures, attention to the development of good taste and judgment in these fields is most important.¹

2. SOCIAL STUDIES CLUBS

In the effort to supplement the information and factual content of traditional social studies courses, various social studies clubs have been formed. This is a problem worthy of the consideration and study of the National Council for Social Studies (245, 1938).

These clubs have taken several forms. One type is modeled after the city or national government. In one instance (408, 1937) the groups were modeled after the League of Nations and the Senate. Students representing colleges and universities in the northeastern part of the United States were invited to take part in "model sessions" held each year. In the "Model League" each country was represented by one or more students who were notified in advance of their temporary nationality so that they might become fully informed regarding the policies of the power for which they were spokesmen. The "Model Senate" similarly was complete, even to a group of lobbyists.

Another type of social studies club provides laboratory experience

¹ See pages 134-139.

in citizenship. They have rendered specific community services and engage in projects such as a "Clean-up and Paint-up Campaign" in which thousands of dollars worth of junk and papers were sold.

A more common type of club is that in which social problems, national and international in scope, are discussed. Sponsors of campus activities whose aim is to promote international understanding and co-operation will welcome the handbook published by the National Education Association Committee on International Relations (482, 1939). This bulletin describes briefly the activities and the materials and services supplied by 174 organizations.

When questions are charged with emotion, the discussion must be handled skillfully so as neither to quench youthful ardor, on one hand, nor to influence unfairly immature students by emotional appeals initiated by pressure groups, on the other hand. In order to avoid subjecting students to such one-sided influence, the leader must try to insure a fair presentation of all sides of the question. Another danger comes from the leader who is himself biased and who may play on student emotions to the neglect of a thoughtful appraisal of the problem.

As students become more mature, they may be encouraged to form convictions on which they will base their service to society. "Education *through* social action" may be more real to them than education *for* social action. In informal groups and laboratory situations there are opportunities for more fundamental civic education than is likely to occur in the classroom.

3. DEBATING CLUBS

Although the general opinion is that debating is disappearing among the extra-curriculum activities, it is actually still firmly entrenched in hundreds of institutions. In some instances there is more emphasis than ever on competition and on defeating an opponent by agile evasion, distortion of the truth, and argumentative subterfuge. In other situations, however, debating is slowly passing away and is being replaced by forums and other forms of discussion groups.

The evolution of the debating club in Columbia College is delightfully described by Hodnett (266, 1940). Recognizing that "speech is one of the forms of communication" in which an educated person should acquire competence, the sponsor of the "Debate Council" (later changed to the more accurate title of "Public Discussion Council") aimed to provide diversified training in public speaking to as many students as possible. He made "the value to the boys, not the superficial success of a program" the first and last consideration.

When the students became cognizant of this opportunity to "acquire more poise, skill in speech, the 'ability to think on their feet,'" the membership increased to nearly one hundred.

The activities included the following:

1. Organized discussion one night a week on topics of live interest; a panel discussion in which speakers from another institution took part; discussion limited to upperclass council members, sometimes with a guest speaker; and discussion in the hands of freshmen and sophomores, with an upper-class chairman.
2. Three radio programs for which the students are primarily responsible, but have the benefit of preliminary conferences and an evaluation of the performance with the sponsor. No detailed radio script is prepared beforehand because that would tend to destroy the spontaneity of the performance and encroach too heavily upon the students' college work. This procedure is in accord with the sponsor's philosophy that "an extracurricular activity should not take too much of a student's time, and it should be fun. Life is grim enough these days without turning games into joyless chores. An extracurricular activity can easily suffer from overdirection" (266:26, 1940).

In summarizing the results of the four years of experiment, Hodnett says:

The undergraduates have demonstrated that they consider the subject matter of their courses interesting enough to talk about outside of classes and vital enough to apply to discussion of the problems faced by a perplexed world. They have shown that such intellectual exercise can take place within the structure of an extracurricular activity and can thus satisfy the American student's irrepressible urge to do a good deal at college besides study. They have proved that public discussion as a means of recreation can attract and hold a substantial number of undergraduates, and that the elaborately coached debating team made up of a few outstanding speakers engaged in grim forensic bickering about a few limited topics is inadequate and undesirable in a modern college. Most important of all, by sharing the responsibilities of a coöperative enterprise and by putting a premium on intelligence, honesty, and tolerance in all their thinking, they have demonstrated how an extracurricular activity can serve as a preparation for citizenship in a democracy (266:28, 1940)

4. FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLUBS

A variety of values may accrue from foreign language clubs. Among these values are appreciation of foreign peoples, increased

proficiency in the language, and the development of numerous social skills. All of these values are represented in the program of one of the largest modern language clubs in the United States—the Circolo Italiano of Washington Irving High School, New York City (506, 1931). The average attendance was over two hundred. The program of this club included the following features:

A good talk in English by an authority in the field.

The learning of a short Italian song.

Musical numbers by some of the members.

Very short business meetings.

Refreshments of Italian foods.

Occasionally the meeting was devoted to an opera, the students explaining the story and singing the main arias. Events outside the meeting room were as important as the meetings themselves—an Italian dinner, an opera night, a visit to one of the great Italian liners, and the reception and dance held at the *Casa Italiana*. Obviously the learnings were not restricted to things Italian.

5. HOME ECONOMICS AND INDUSTRIAL ARTS CLUBS

Homemaking clubs have general values similar to those already mentioned, and the specific values of developing appreciation and proficiency in women's most important vocation. The 4-H Homemaking Club work has introduced a valuable type of group work into rural communities. A study made of the junior homemaking organizations in one county (612, 1926) indicates the effectiveness of club work in reaching rural homes, and reports changes in home and farm practices due to the influence of club work. More than four out of every five families were acquainted with club work; one out of two rural boys and girls of club age had, at some time, been members of clubs. Practices appeared to be changed most frequently by the junior demonstrations of results. Exhibits did not seem to have much effect in changing practices. From the standpoint of the adult, the actual work done by the boy or girl in the home or on the farm is considered to be the most valuable feature of club work. The most marked weakness was the relatively short duration of membership.

An unusual type of club associated with the home economics department was an international club (635, 1938) which met during the noon hour. This club was sponsored by a home economics teacher who had traveled abroad and had taken a course in art as well. The three high spots in the year's program were an exhibit of art objects, pictures, and costumes from various lands, a Christmas pageant

portraying customs, music, and dances of various countries, and a spring folk festival. All of these programs were beautifully produced through the co-operation of many students, with a great deal of satisfaction on the part of all concerned.

The aims of industrial arts clubs were summarized by Brace (53, 1936):

1. Development of handyman skills.
2. Provision of exploratory opportunities for the discovery of aptitudes.
3. Provision of activities leading to the pursuit of hobbies and the worthy use of leisure.
4. Construction of objects of value.
5. Vocational information through visits to industrial plants.
6. Encouragement of initiative, resourcefulness, self-confidence, and self-expression.
7. Appreciation of the training and skill required of the craftsman and mechanic.

Most of these values, if modified to include verbal as well as manual skills, accrue to all of the departmental clubs.

B. INFORMAL GROUPS IN THE REGULAR CURRICULUM

Increasingly, informal group activities such as those represented by the academic interest clubs are being incorporated into the regular curriculum. Eventually the entire curriculum may be vitalized by group-work procedures developed in extra-curriculum activities. At the present time the so-called core curriculum, the homeroom, and special courses in personal and modern social problems resemble the informal curriculum of student activities more closely than the traditional curriculum. These and also assemblies and conferences are the most common avenues of guidance in groups.

I. CORE CURRICULUM CLASSES

The core curriculum often takes the form of a progressive series of discussions of personal and social problems. The questions for discussion are suggested by the students and the discussion is frequently conducted by a student chairman (550, 1940). Obviously many other types of classes may follow the same informal method of discussion of vital problems.

2. HOMEROOMS

Still more informal and spontaneous are the activities of the homeroom periods created to restore certain values destroyed by depart-

mentalization. The homeroom was one substitute offered for the lost personal contacts and informality of the little red schoolhouse. Between the extremes of too much formalization and a *laissez-faire* policy the homeroom has tried, not always successfully, to steer a middle course. If a rigid curriculum and formal methods are carried over into the homeroom, its *raison d'être* is not fulfilled; if too much informality is allowed, both teachers and students feel that time is being wasted. Dissatisfaction with the way homerooms have been conducted has resulted in less enthusiasm now for this avenue of guidance than was expressed some years ago. However, in a recent investigation (153, 1938) high school principals, seventy-three in number, from twenty states and Hawaii, while far from unanimous in their whole-hearted endorsement of the homeroom, nevertheless, with twelve exceptions, reported that the values attributed to the homeroom could not be achieved as well or at all by regular classes.

A number of surveys of homeroom conditions (76, 1929; 181, 1930; 212:35-42, 1931; 303:278, 1934; 325:545-53, 1932; 377, 934; 500:61, 1930), made between 1930 and 1934, show that homerooms had been introduced in more than three-fourths of the schools surveyed. These surveys also make clear the diversity of practice. The number of periods ranged from one to six or more a week, the most common being a short period daily, more frequently at the beginning of the day; the next most frequent practice being a single period weekly.

The length of period covered a range from less than ten to more than seventy minutes, the most usual length being between ten and fifty minutes. The average total weekly time is approximately one and a half hours. The short period is the obvious reason why the scope of activity in many homerooms is restricted to matters of mere routine. The homeroom group usually numbers between thirty and forty students.

The proportion of teachers on the staff who serve as homeroom advisers ranges from all the teachers to less than 10 per cent, but in the majority of schools almost three-fourths of all the teachers on the staff are responsible for homeroom groups. The more teachers are employed as homeroom advisers, the smaller will be the homeroom group. On the other hand, there is the disadvantage of a larger proportion of the homeroom teachers not being fitted by temperament or education for homeroom procedures.

For the most part, these homeroom teachers who are merely, as Brewer put it, subject teachers in disguise assigned additional responsibility for the homeroom, are left to work out their own salva-

tion. He believes that "no homeroom plan is likely to be successful unless teachers are re-educated and tactfully and persistently supervised in carrying out the plans proposed and agreed upon" (55:590, 1932). In approximately one-third of the schools studied, homeroom teachers were provided with mimeographed material, usually consisting of suggestions for homeroom programs.

Students may be assigned to homerooms on various bases. The most frequent appears to be a simple alphabetical grouping. Ability grouping is now seldom used. Ideally, grouping in the homeroom should be made on the basis of a study of each student. By taking into consideration his relations with teachers and other students, his home background, his special abilities and needs, the personnel worker is better able to place him in the group to which he can contribute most and from which he may receive the most stimulation and benefit.

As to the length of time a teacher should remain with a group, there are differences of opinion. Some writers recommend that the homeroom teacher specialize in a certain class group such as the freshmen or the seniors. Others believe that the values of continuous contact with the same students for three or four years outweighs the advantages of special knowledge of a certain age group. In the permanent homeroom plan students are received from every entering class. These freshmen stay with their homeroom teacher during their high school years. Having only a few new pupils from year to year, the teacher can quickly acquaint himself with each.

The widest variation in practice is found in the use of the homeroom period. Homeroom activities may be classified as guidance activities (114, 1940), administrative activities, activities to promote school spirit, and study procedures.

Among the guidance activities mentioned were the following:

Rating the character of students.

Finding summer and after-school employment for students.

Controlling students' participation in extra-curriculum activities.

Attempting to discover and develop latent abilities.

Helping students to make out their programs.

Conferring with all students regarding their work.

Conferring with failing students.

Commending students doing especially good work.

Counseling on choice of college and vocation and on various other personal problems.

Guidance may also be offered in group discussions of common prob-

lems and in situations demanding courtesy, co-operation, leadership, and self-expression.

Some of the common administrative activities are the following:

Taking attendance.

Reading bulletins from the office.

Making announcements.

Conducting school elections.

Recording marks on report cards.

Collecting money for tickets, fees, and other purposes.

Co-operating with the student council.

Other more specific problems and projects frequently introduced in the homeroom period are those relating to health, recreation and use of leisure, educational and vocational plans, social customs and manners, character and personality, and thrift. Many homerooms feature programs to observe special days and others that, from the student's point of view, are primarily for entertainment and enjoyment.

The evaluation of homeroom activities should consist of an attempt to ascertain the extent to which the homeroom program has met the needs of all the students—their need for perspective and continuity in their school work, for opportunity to assume responsibilities in small groups, for self-expression, and for acquiring the information and attitudes necessary as a basis for making choices and solving real life problems. In order to attain these values an informal democratic atmosphere and practice in problem solving are essential.

3. PERSONALITY COURSES

Certain problems brought to light in the homeroom period may require more extensive treatment than is possible in the time allotted. The discussion of such problems may take the form of a course on modern problems, personal and social. As early as 1920, a course (525, 1920) was organized, beginning with an appeal to the student's own experience with group life, such as family, school, teams, and clubs, and continuing with the tracing of the development of modern society. All but one of the seniors who took the course were in favor of requiring such a course for all high school students. The majority said that they spent more time for preparation in this course than in other courses and were convinced that field trips were worthwhile and much free class discussion necessary.

Since that time many courses in social relations and personality development have been established elsewhere. The course developed

by Gibson (219, 1927) was divided into three parts: "social responsibilities," "relations with others," and "problems of personality." More recently, Brockman (62, 1936) has been experimenting with a course originating in the question, "What is she like?" In the first term of high school the personality instruction is integrated with the civics course required of all freshmen; during the second term, with hygiene. In addition, the daily section periods and four forty-minute periods each term are devoted to the personality work.

Other suggestions for such courses, which approach the problem from different angles, have been made by Jordon, Ziller, and Brown (308, 1935) in a book entitled *Home and Family*; by Hunter (281, 1932) in *The Girl Today, The Woman Tomorrow*, which developed as the result of twelve years of experience in a large cosmopolitan high school; by Lyster and Hudnall (360, 1935) in *Social Problems of the High School Boy*; by Brown (65, 1933) in an article; and by McAndrew (361, 1935) and McPhee (382, 1934).

The introduction of personality courses raises many questions which demand serious consideration. Among these questions are the following: What kind of personality do we want to develop? What recognition of individual differences should be given? What is the effect of personality courses on the modification of personality? What other ways of developing personality may be more effective? Is self-centered struggle for personality desirable from the mental hygiene point of view? Is there danger of developing artificial social mannerisms?

The effect of these courses in terms of knowledge, attitude, and behavior in school and at home should be studied. In order to do this, the description of content and method of the course should be synchronized with case studies of individuals.

4. LEADERSHIP CLASSES

The leadership class constitutes another type of informal group which has been introduced into the curriculum of some schools. If group work requires knowledge and skill for successful functioning, the question might be raised: Should not the group-work process become a subject for serious study and be introduced as such in the regular curriculum? In the Parker High School, Chicago (620, 1938), the attempt was made to do this. A class known as "Social Science I" was organized for thirty students holding prominent school offices. Three periods were devoted to discussions of leadership, the history of American education, trends apparent in society, the history of student co-operation in school control, and the history,

merits, shortcomings, and operation of their own organization. The fourth period in the week was spent in a formal cabinet meeting, and the Friday hour at meetings of the school legislative body. In the entire range of group activities in a school, such a class offering definite instruction has a place along with the most informal and spontaneous groups. A somewhat similar class consisting of all members of the student council was described by Atkinson (20, 1939). This class dealt with less theoretical background and more specific projects such as the improvement of the high school assemblies.

At Sacramento, California (467, 1936), the same kind of experiment was tried. This class likewise studied school problems—the assembly program, supervision and control of the locker system, by-laws to the school constitution, orientation of entering students, supervision of student body elections, and publication of a students' handbook. In studying each problem, they used the following outline:

1. Isolating the problem.
2. Collecting data.
3. Analyzing the data.
4. Arriving at conclusions based on the data.
5. Drawing up of a plan or program for the solution of the problem.

This course is one means of attacking the fundamental problem of student government activities, namely, the education of the students in co-operative procedures.

Hand (237, 1940) obtained opinions about student leadership seminars from 50 per cent of institutions of higher learning enrolling five hundred or more students. The main findings were:

Less than one institution in seven were treating campus activity problems in any of the regular courses.

The majority (52.1 per cent) believed that a course or seminar in student government problems or problems of campus leadership would be desirable. Only eighteen institutions, however, were offering such a course at the time of the study.

5. OTHER "GROUP GUIDANCE" CLASSES

Descriptions of guidance through group activities incorporated into the regular curriculum may be found in the references already cited and in many additional books and articles (6, 1933; 7, 1938; 428, 1939). The most common pattern of procedure is one in which the students submit questions and problems which they would like to discuss and a personnel worker or committee prepares materials

to inform the teachers on some of the common problems and to help them to improve their techniques of work with groups. The best of these programs encourage student initiative, meet the needs of local groups, and give students instruction in the planning and carrying out of programs. In instances in which programs have developed into stereotyped, teacher-dominated subject matter, most of their values are lost.

One of the obvious values of the case conference method is appreciation, on the part of the student, of the problems which his contemporaries are facing and of the ways in which they are meeting them. Thus the student may see his own problems in a larger perspective. From an administrative standpoint, the cost of guidance may thus be decreased by reducing the amount of time needed for individual interviews.

Instead of imparting information about choice of college and further educational plans in a core curriculum or homeroom, teachers may sponsor a special club for this purpose. One such club (200, 1939) included in its program speakers on relevant subjects, the reading of current articles and magazines relating to choice of college, the consulting of reference books, and individual conferences with the sponsor.

The careers conference is a condensed or concentrated form of the class in occupational information. Among the good features of the careers conference are the use of student initiative in the planning and executing of the program, the organization of groups on the basis of fields of work rather than specific vocations, a series of conferences scheduled during the semester rather than a concentration of meetings in one day, the participation of parents as well as students, the inviting of young workers as speakers in addition to those who have become well-established in their vocation, and the recording of talks given in a form which may become a permanent addition to the vocational guidance library. Specific details in planning an apparently successful careers conference are given by Mitchell (407, 1938). Such conferences are a common feature of the guidance programs in many secondary schools, colleges, and universities.²

C. HONOR SOCIETIES

I. IN SECONDARY SCHOOL

Since honor societies in high school are still prevalent, they must be given consideration, even though they may not be theoretically

² Investigations on the class in occupations will be reviewed in the fifth volume of the series on vocational guidance.

approved. The National Honor Society has approved chapters of two types: (1) those strictly scholastic and (2) those organized as service clubs engaged in such projects as the promotion of scholarship and citizenship, tutoring, and co-operation in the guidance program, journalism, and research.

Four factors that have been considered in the selection of students for membership in honor societies are intellectual interests, achievement in school subjects, ratings of students' classmates on citizenship, and ratings of the faculty on citizenship. According to Reavis, "If honor societies are maintained in the secondary schools, the method of selecting the members should be refined to a degree that will command the confidence of those who fail of election as well as of those who are elected" (473:430, 1928).

A survey made by Terry (573, 1926) showed scholarship, measured almost without exception on the basis of teachers' marks, to be the most important basis of selecting members. Attempts have been made, however, to give appropriate emphasis to qualities of service, leadership, and character.

These ratings are frequently made by faculty members who are asked to make either a blanket rating on all the qualities to be considered or a rating on each quality separately. Instead of ratings by the faculty, the student's score on a point system may be used.

Another question on the rating of candidates is sometimes raised: "Should the judgment of the students' classmates on citizenship qualities be obtained and taken into consideration by the faculty committee in choosing the members of the honor society?" Factual data on this question was collected by Reavis (473, 1928) from 220 juniors and seniors in the University High School, University of Chicago. The following correlations between citizenship ratings of the faculty and citizenship ratings of the students were obtained:

Entire group of 220—	$r = .685$
All boys—107	$r = .729$
All girls—113	$r = .640$

These correlations are sufficiently high to indicate a substantial agreement between faculty and student judgment, and warrant the use of either or both ratings in selecting candidates for honor societies.

2. IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The problems of honorary fraternities in a teachers' college (568, 1933) appear to center around several difficulties: the connotations of *fraternity*, the overemphasis of grades, and the development of

intellectual snobbery. The values of these groups lie in their contribution to the maintenance of higher standards, fuller orientation in a chosen field, widened contact with other institutions of higher education, the promotion of improved student and student-faculty relationships, and contribution in research or services to the group. Unless these values are realized, the honorary society will eventually vanish, or at least diminish in numbers.

In certain large universities (425, 1933) the honorary fraternities approach the farcical. At Syracuse University, at one time, there were sixty-three honoraries, thirty-eight of which were nationals. A student had a 60 per cent chance of joining one and in some cases belonged to three or four. Thus mere numbers created a difficult problem. This multiplicity of organizations diverts large sums of money to national headquarters, sometimes as much as \$10,000 annually from large universities, or a quarter of a million dollars in the country as a whole (465, 1934).

It was recommended that there be one honorary for each school and college of the university and that both sexes be admitted to it. More fundamental was the proposed evaluation of honorary societies and the attempt to eradicate evils which have arisen in connection with them.

D. ASSEMBLIES

1. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

There seems to be a prevailing unanimity of opinion as to the two sources from which the assembly in secondary schools arose. One of these is the custom, prevalent in early American colleges, of holding daily chapel exercises largely devotional in nature but also used for such administrative procedures as announcements and remonstrance, by someone in authority, for cases of wrong doing. The other source is generally stated as being the "speech-days," "Friday-afternoons," and similar forensic displays so typical of the common schools of earlier days, particularly on the rural frontier (374:3-4, 1930).

More recently, assemblies have been used chiefly to publicize inter-school athletic contests, to discuss citizenship attitudes and disciplinary problems, to stimulate school spirit and intraschool contests, to make group awards, to "sell" certain propositions, and to hold devotional exercises. The time allotted has been from forty to fifty minutes and the responsibility for the assembly has been usually assumed by the principal. In 1923 fifty-three out of ninety-five principals reported that they arranged the assembly programs, and

twenty-one served as chairmen (180, 1923). Obviously, the assembly program was largely a "principal activity" at this time. From 1920 to 1930, however, a marked trend was evident toward greater student participation in conceiving, planning, executing, and evaluating assembly programs.

By 1930 the assembly was used as a unifying agency in the socialization of students and as a means of orienting students to the entire educational program of the school. At that time the trend seemed to be toward "informative" assembly programs largely planned by the students, spontaneous in character, and geared into the educational programs of the school. There was little evidence of unity and continuity in the programs (500, 1930).

As the public high school developed, assembly procedures were, at first, adopted in much the same form as that used in the earlier institutions. Their subsequent modification has been at a pace so uneven that one finds every sort of procedure recorded, varying from traditional programs of devotion, announcements, "scolding," and bits of oratorical display by a student, faculty member, or visitor, to such a pupil-conceived and directed program as that in operation at the University High School, Oakland, California (71, 1931).

McKown (374, 1930) made six "guesses" as to the possible future of the assembly:

1. That the audience will participate more actively in the program.
2. That programs and series of programs will attain greater unity through a central theme.
3. That schools will exchange programs.
4. That evaluation of programs will be more objective.
5. That professional training for sponsors of assemblies will be demanded.
6. That such training will be provided in institutions for the education of teachers.

At the present time little evidence of progress in most of these directions is available in published form.

2. ALLEGED VALUES

The following claims have been made for the school assembly:

Develops school unity.

Encourages school spirit.

Provides motivation for curricular activities.

Stimulates interest in extra-curriculum activities.

Builds proper habits and attitudes in audiences.

Affords opportunity to share information.

Creates intelligent public opinion in school.

Stimulates expression and overcomes self-consciousness.

Develops the aesthetic senses and widens interests.

Develops self-expression.

Provides inspiration and opportunity for focusing attention on higher values.

Motivates and supplements class work.

Makes an important contribution to race relationships.

Helps to create understanding in the community.

Many more specific values might be mentioned.

Some of those listed are open to unfavorable criticism. Arousing "school spirit" which has no directed outlet may be worse than valueless. Emphasis on competitive assembly exercises may neutralize instruction aimed to develop co-operation. Poise and proficiency in expressing oneself before a large group is probably an ability not needed by many students and one that is not developed as a result of one or two appearances a year.

In institutions of higher learning the same problems have prevailed. In many institutions, however, improvement in the assembly has been made through the co-operative effort of faculty and students. For example, in the State Teachers College at Trenton, New Jersey (327, 1941), as a result of growing dissatisfaction with the traditional chapel period, the faculty began to study the problem. As no published information on the teachers' college assembly was available, a faculty committee sought information from other institutions and made a critical survey of their own procedures. The major recommendation incorporated in the "new plan" was to use the assembly to enrich the cultural background of the students who come from a diversity of social background and cultural experience. In its final form the program consisted of a number of distinguished men and women who spoke on various subjects in the field of literature and drama, education, athletics, music, travel, science, and religion. The total cost of securing the speakers was \$1,800, part of which was paid by the student executive board and the major part by the college. Active student participation was provided for in the public forum which followed talks in the field of politics, sociology, and international affairs. The compulsory feature was retained in order to insure attendance of a small minority who might otherwise not avail themselves of the opportunity.

Attendance at a second series of weekly assemblies sponsored by this assembly program committee was voluntary. These assemblies were held regularly in a period on Friday morning when no other

classes or other meetings were scheduled and provided for more student initiative in the planning and conducting of the assembly.

3. COMPULSORY ASPECT

One of the questions which has been frequently raised by administrators is "Should assembly programs be compulsory?" In one of the nation-wide surveys summarized by Rugg (500, 1930) it was reported that attendance was compulsory in 90.2 per cent of the 138 high schools studied.

An outstanding example of successful voluntary assemblies has been developed over a period of years in University High School, Oakland, California (71, 1931). There the pupils are free to decide for themselves whether they will attend a particular assembly. The programs are varied in nature, ranging from a "pep" rally to a technical presentation of a scientific problem. One assembly attended by the writer presented three representatives from different religious groups, each of whom spoke on his own faith. The assembly room was crowded with students who had come voluntarily and listened with keen interest. Obviously the problem of compulsory assembly is closely related to the quality of the program. If it meets students' needs, they will come whether attendance is compulsory or voluntary.

E. ATHLETICS

The potential values of athletics have been analyzed into specific attitudes, appreciations, abilities, and understandings (475, 1938). The attitudes included were the attitudes of inquiry, personal cultivation, personal expression, respect for personality, open-mindedness, mental integrity, responsibility, tolerance, respect for constituted authority, interest in working harmoniously with others, and the scientific attitude. Among the appreciations were appreciation of high standards of conduct, shared activity, the beautiful, nature, and the achievements of thinking. The abilities to follow instructions, conform to social standards, maintain health, and respond to situations requiring neuro-muscular skills were mentioned. It was suggested that athletics would also contribute to the understanding of the relation of health to human development, recreation as a creative agency, and "democracy as a method of living and thinking."

I. HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Facts concerning the early days of intercollegiate games and sports were presented by Cowley with his admirable historical perspective (126, 1934). He dates the first intercollegiate athletic contest in 1852

when a boat race took place between Yale and Harvard. Seventeen years later intercollegiate football of a rough and ready type was initiated. It was not until some years later that basketball, hockey, soccer, tennis, and swimming became college sports. Athletic letters and athletic cheers and cheer leaders "with their questionable pageantry" made their appearance during the last decade of the nineteenth century.

In tracing the development of college athletics, no one should overlook the Carnegie Report entitled, "A Study of American College Athletics" (508, 1929). This report is based on an extensive and comprehensive survey of facts and on visitation of more than one hundred institutions in the United States and Canada. The capitalizing of athletic skill of boys for institutional purposes is characterized as exploitation for unworthy ends, a danger to health, and a corruption of morals. The vicious practices of recruiting and subsidizing of athletes which reach down into the secondary school are described in detail and their effect upon the student is clearly set forth, as are also some factors related to intercollegiate competition as an obstacle to students in attaining the level of intellectual performances which their capacities should make possible.

Two years later, Savage, McGovern, and Bentley (509, 1931) described some wholesome changes taking place in 164 colleges and universities with respect to the recruiting and subsidizing of athletics.

A survey (265, 1939) of leisure activities of students at the University of Wisconsin showed that more than 75 per cent of the students took part in activities appealing to their interest in the opposite sex. The most popular activities included:

Activity	Per Cent of Students
	Participating Either Occasionally or Regularly
Movies.....	84
Dancing.....	74
Out-of-door exercise....	68
Spectator sports.....	58
Cards.....	52
Participator in sports...	49
Parlor dates.....	41
Union lectures.....	39
Student organizations...	37
Concerts.....	34
Dramatics.....	34
Hobbies.....	24
Forums and debates....	16
Teas and receptions....	12
Art.....	9
Bowling.....	4

This study of the use of leisure time in one university shows the relative position of athletic activities among other competing forms of recreation.

There is a reciprocal relation between the development of the physical activity program and the development of the individual student. One may influence the other. The resulting habits of engaging in physical recreation thus depend not only on physical and physiological maturation but also on the kind of program provided. Baker (24, 1940) obtained statements from 1150 women and girls fifteen to twenty-five years of age regarding their habits of physical activity. As the girls mature, they tended to engage in less strenuous and more vicarious activities. Both physical and social factors apparently produced these changes. There was little evidence that their patterns of activities were definitely planned.

2. PROBLEMS

a. Relation of athletics to intelligence and scholarship.—This problem has been more extensively studied than any other in the field, but without sufficient appreciation of its complexity. In 1931 Jacobsen (286, 1931) summarized seventeen investigations that had been made in approximately forty-two high schools. From the examination of the data, difficult to summarize because of lack of uniformity and precision in methods, he concluded that high school athletes are of average mental ability, that they compare favorably with non-athletes in academic achievement, and that the scholarship of athletes does not suffer appreciably during participation.

Later references on this question (121, 1935) generally show the differences in scholarship between high school athletes and non-athletes to be negligible.

Less closely related to the school program is the study made by Wyland (643, 1934) to ascertain the relation of Scouting to the schools and the records of Scouts compared with non-Scouts. Reports were obtained from 2300 superintendents and principals of elementary, junior high, and senior high schools. The school apparently is making no effort to "take over" Scouting as an administrative responsibility of the school. The basic controlling policy seems to be "increasing co-operation without incorporation."

In intelligence and scholarship Scouts are consistently higher than non-Scouts. Their scholarship, however, is not commensurate with their higher intelligence and more favorable home conditions. The most outstanding differences between the records of Scouts and non-Scouts are in their positions of leadership in student activities.

In all of the schools included in the study Scouts held the majority of important student offices.

One of the more recent references presented a comparison of scores made on standardized English tests by high school boy athletes and non-athletes (521, 1938). This investigation eliminated the unreliability of teachers' marks which have usually been made the basis for comparison in investigations of this kind. On the Barrett-Ryan English Test and the Iowa Placement Tests the median percentile for athletes was 47.5 and for non-athletes, 42.7—a difference which, according to the investigator, is large enough to be significant. In proportion to their intelligence as measured by the American Council on Education Psychological Examination the athletes made higher achievement records than the non-athletes. The definition of "athlete," however, would affect this relationship. If all students who had participated during high school years in any extra-class games or sports were included, we should expect different results than if the subjects were limited to those who had engaged extensively in athletic activities. Reference to other investigations on this relation is made in the following chapter.

b. Control and finance.—A variety of policies with respect to the administration of intramural athletics was found to exist in twenty-four selected colleges and universities (423, 1937). Outstanding were the apparent neglect of policies to provide for the health of participants who engage in strenuous activities and the overemphasis of awards. Other procedures of administration should legitimately vary with the stage of development of organization and program in an individual institution and with its facilities, equipment, climate, size of staff, and budgets.

In the high school field, regulations of the state high school athletic associations are uniform with respect to two main points, namely, that students eligible for high school athletics must be amateurs and must be high school students, not postgraduates or students who have had experience in college. Other than these two regulations, there seems to be no clear-cut agreement concerning the aims of interscholastic athletics.

Problems of financing activities including athletics are reviewed on pages 43-48. More than other group activities, however, athletics involve problems of co-operation among schools.

The method of financing interschool competitive athletics in the junior and senior high schools of Chicago in 1928 combined a certain degree of centralization with control by each individual school (153, 1928). A Board of Control, consisting of one representative

from each school, formulated rules and regulations for all sports and fixed the fee to be paid by each school upon entering the league. In the final championship games 10 to 15 per cent of the net gate receipts were turned over to the board.

c. **Interschool contests.**—Many problems arise from interschool athletic contests. This problem of teams for competitive purposes is a study in itself and of great importance. For the spirit of "team play" and "good sportsmanship," which is exemplified concretely in games and sports, may influence the *esprit de corps* of the entire student body for good or ill.

In high schools, athletics are only one form of interschool contests. Replies received from 168 of 491 high school principals to whom questionnaires were sent in May 1929 showed an extensive variety of interschool contests, the most prevalent being athletic contests (623, 1932). Public speaking contests and music contests were next in frequency. Journalistic, commercial, and academic contests involved a large number of student participants in many schools. Since a relatively small percentage (only 17.8 per cent) of high school students participate in contests of this kind, the benefits, if any, are limited to a very few.

Another survey likewise showed interscholastic competitive activities to be astonishingly prevalent. In this survey of 224 schools distributed over the United States, Reavis (472, 1933) found that 70.5 per cent of these schools, during the school year 1929-30, sponsored interscholastic contests in thirty-two different activities. A total of 47,859 students or nearly half of the students enrolled in the schools studied participated in the combined activities of contests, tournaments, and meets. In the 148 schools sponsoring interscholastic contests approximately one-third of the total enrollment practiced for these competitions and about one-third of those who practiced actually participated in the contests. The majority of schools required that participants maintain certain scholarship standards. Other than that, the contestants were selected either on the basis of ability in class work or on the basis of special ability in the activity. Participants in these contests, in most of the schools, received special coaching. The financial support was found to be inadequate. It was obtained through sale of tickets, from the general school fund for extra-curriculum activities, from dues collected from students, from contributions of the board of education, and in other ways.

It must not be assumed that the amount of participation is a valid criterion by which to judge the worth of these contests. They can only be justly appraised in terms of their effect on the development

of all the students and the effect on the school and the community. Teachers who have been in school systems where such contests have been featured have pointed out many negative results: neglect of the majority of the students in the effort to train the contestants, fatigue and strain on the part of students and teachers, the substitution of a spirit of competition for a spirit of co-operation among schools, neglect of other important activities. Most of these serious objections to interscholastic contests would be removed by having schools co-operate rather than compete in presenting a finished performance to the community and by providing opportunities for all students to participate in similar activities on a recreational rather than on a highly expert basis.

3. TRENDS AND PLANS

A crucial point of attack is the selection of physical education directors who are "educators." Too many are "coaches" who exalt the winning team even at the cost of undue inroads on school time, loss of friendliness between schools, and real sportsmanship. There seems to be a trend toward the more educationally minded director of athletics.

In both high school and college a tendency may be noted to abolish or modify interschool competitive athletics, and to feature intermural activities. Especially is this true in the case of girls. Certainly athletics are not justified unless they are free from commercialism and unless all students are allowed to take part in any activity that will be beneficial to them. "Fair play, courtesy, generosity, self-control, and friendly feelings for the opposing school should not be sacrificed in the desire to win" (481:30, 1931). Although 1631 schools answered "yes" to that statement, the realization of such an objective is no small task.

Far less competitive than the interscholastic contests are the "play days." Although the teams, on these occasions, are composed of members of several schools, the number of activities is large and the competitive aspect minimized by prohibiting crowds of spectators.

The popularization of athletics at the University of Iowa (132, 1939) took the form of "play night," sports programs for girls, clubs for specific sports such as badminton, swimming, and archery; dancing lessons; and work in community recreation centers. "Play night" was held Saturday evenings during the summer session and at intervals during the winter. The facilities of the women's physical education department were made available for volleyball, softball, cageball, archery, ping-pong, shuffle-board, dancing, folk dancing,

square dancing (91, 1938), and a variety of other games and sports. An ice skating rink was likewise enjoyed by students and field trips of the camera club took students with special interest in photography out of doors. Thus students were encouraged to build permanent interests in physical activities that are as appropriate for adult life as for college days.

A similar co-recreation program was developed at the University of Wisconsin (265, 1939).

4. OUTING CLUBS AND YOUTH HOSTELS

A rather recent development is the college outing club. The Inter-collegiate Outing Club Association was organized in 1932, with a plan to begin the school year with a week in the open. The activities of such clubs in the past have ranged from mountaineering to roller-skating and from summer outings to winter sports. In 1938 Daniels (135, 1938) reported that about seventy-five colleges and universities had organized outing clubs. The membership in these clubs covers a range from thirty to one thousand. The majority of these clubs were organized by the students themselves and some were administered altogether by students. With suitable facilities and equipment a variety of outdoor activities can be enjoyed—hiking, skating, skiing, sleigh rides, cycling, riding, swimming, group singing, discussions, stories around the fire, and camp cooking. "For wholesome and satisfying activities, deep and lasting in nature, plus good fellowship without class distinction, the out-of-doors has no peer" (135:326, 1938).

Another significant outdoor movement is represented by the youth hostel (32, 1936). The American youth hostel is patterned closely after the youth hostel associations abroad. Mr. and Mrs. Monroe W. Smith, the directors of the facility—as they prefer to call it—spent a summer in Europe with thirty-five young people from this country, studying the European plan. The first hostel in this country opened on December 24, 1934, in a castle in East Northfield, Massachusetts. During the first six months of its existence, one thousand persons registered for overnight. Now the New England "Loop" consists of a chain of thirty-two hostels going from Northfield through the White Mountains to Mt. Washington, then across Vermont, coming down through the Green Mountains and back to Northfield—a distance of 450 miles. Most of the hostels are at farm homes. The owners of the homes which have become hostels act as hosts and hostesses and see that the young travelers stopping overnight with them receive satisfactory accommodations for the small

fee charged, secure necessary directions or help, and "play the game" with respect to conduct.

An increase in the use of youth hostels during 1937 was reported by Cline (108, 1938). By that time 110 hostels or youth centers had been established and were being used increasingly to supplement the programs of the schools. Cline described in some detail the facilities made available to young people in different states.

In time the youth hostels may become one of the most worthwhile leisure time activities, both creating and satisfying a love for the out-of-doors as well as fostering friendly relations among the young travelers whose motto is "Not for myself, but for the group."

F. CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

Group activities acquire depth and stability as they become concerned with fundamental areas of human knowledge and modern problems. Only by including such activities can the potentialities of group work be fully realized. The regular curriculum as well as the group program benefits from the academic interest type of club. Moreover, the extent and quality of participation in these clubs are indicative of the vitality of the regular curriculum when the departmental club represents curricular activity leading to further voluntary activity.

Increasingly the informal group-work procedure of academic interest clubs is being employed in the classroom. During the past twenty years hundreds of descriptions of group activities in the core curriculum, in the homeroom, in special "group guidance" classes, and in subject matter classes have been published. Very little attempt has been made, however, to appraise the results of these activities in terms of changes made in boys and girls.

Enough illustrations of successful assemblies planned and conducted by students are available to warrant high schools and colleges moving still more rapidly in this direction. The fact that these student-planned assemblies attract large and interested audiences of students who are not required to attend is important experiential validation of the procedure. It is a long way from the formal, faculty-dominated, uninteresting traditional assembly to the spontaneous, student-controlled vital programs now appearing in many schools and colleges.

General principles of group work are likewise gradually being applied to athletic activities. If the physical education director's attention is focused on the best development of every student, he will no longer tolerate the abuses enmeshed with the program of inter-

school contests. Instead, he will provide suitable group activities in school and in the community for every student, for some, informal outdoor association requiring no special skills; for others, games and sports in which they will engage outside of school, and for a few, perhaps, competitive groups requiring a high degree of skill.

Neither scholarship nor intelligence is necessarily related to athletics. The relationship varies with the many factors uncontrolled in the investigations which have been made. One hypothesis supported by several researches is particularly significant, namely, that scholarship in relation to intelligence is higher for athletes than for students not engaging in athletic activities. In other words, engaging in athletics may have a tonic effect on the student which results in his using his mental ability more effectively.

G. RESEARCH NEEDED

A study of the values of extra-class academic interest clubs and athletics as compared with the value of curricular groups in the same subject matter fields would supply a sounder basis for or against the present trend toward curricularization of these activities. Such an investigation would have to be repeated in a number of institutions because variations in the kind and quality of the groups would greatly influence the results. The same administrative setup in two schools, one in which the curricularized group work was handled skillfully and enthusiastically and the other in which teachers were either antagonistic or indifferent to the plan, would obviously yield radically different results.

The continuity of these activities in after life should also be subjected to investigation. At present there is little correspondence between the activities to which a large proportion of school time is devoted and the leisure activities in which students later engage. Certainly the school should be more effective in teaching students to get satisfaction from worthy types of activities which they can enjoy both in the present and in the future.

CHAPTER VIII

STUDENT PUBLICATIONS

THE staffs of student publications differ from social and recreational and departmental groups, described in the previous chapters, in being more specialized, individualistic, and limited as to the number of students who can participate. This group of student activities is likewise more frequently incorporated as part of the curriculum than are the social groups. Although not primarily social, student publications may have high social value. They bring boys and girls together in one of the most natural and wholesome kinds of relationship, namely, that of working co-operatively on real tasks.

For these reasons student publications, including newspaper, annual, magazines, and handbooks, are an important part of the student activity program. Their two main purposes are to contribute to the personal development of students and to enhance school life.

A. VALUES OF STUDENT PUBLICATIONS

In addition to the general values already mentioned, the college publications are often important organs of student opinion. Studer (560, 1926) cites several striking examples of the "new journalism" in action: In 1924 the *Crimson* was the first to point out the official neglect of Professor George P. Baker's famous '47 workshop. The paper stated that the university officials permitted the Business School to get \$5,000,000 while "Professor Baker was actually forbidden to raise money." The paper lost the fight; Professor Baker left for Yale; but a note was struck in college journalism that has been echoed since in many a college.

Another example was in connection with the widespread chapel revolt in the spring of 1925. Paper after paper took up the issue. So effective was the agitation that three student bodies voted against required chapel in the fall of 1925. The results were:

	For Compulsory Chapel	Against Compulsory Chapel
Yale.....	241	1681
Penn State College.....	315	1709
Vassar.....	64	819

College papers have similarly led in successive drives against compulsory military training and unpopular professors, courses, and college policies. In some cases the result has been conflict between radical young editors and reactionary presidents, faculty members, and alumni.

Principals and teachers (86, 1940) believe that participation on a publication staff is worthwhile for the majority of students taking part. Only six of 613 teachers and two of 282 principals responded negatively to a question on that point raised by Campbell (86, 1940). Twenty-five heads of schools of journalism were not so unanimously in favor of school newspapers: only thirteen considered school newspapers worthwhile and eight were definitely opposed to them.

According to Hopwood (275, 1926), student publications touch college life at perhaps more points than any other agency, and are one of the best mediums through which the "peculiar phenomenon of the undergraduate mind at work" may be observed.

B. PREVALENCE OF STUDENT PUBLICATIONS

Student publications are a long-established feature of school life. Established early, probably because of their close affiliation with a major school subject, they have persisted in somewhat changing form until the present day.

College journalism may be roughly classified under five heads:

1. The college bulletin, mainly a faculty publication.
2. The literary magazine, now disappearing from the college campus.
3. The humorous publication.
4. The college newspaper.
5. The annual, or yearbook.

These forms of publication are likewise found in many secondary schools and offer a variety of experience in journalism to a limited number of students.

In many high schools, more than ten years ago, students had opportunities to edit, write for, and manage school newspapers and magazines. In 1928 the prevalence of publications in seventy-two high schools in Kansas was reported by Lockman (354, 1928). Fifty-five of these schools published school papers, forty-eight had classes in journalism, and forty-three published annuals. In more than half of the schools (forty-five) the school paper was self-supporting; in ten schools it was printed in the school shop. In eight schools a deficiency in money for the yearbook was made up by the board of education; in twenty schools, by the senior class and the

general activity fund. In the opinion of twenty-three of the respondents, the annual was not worth the time and money spent on it. It was noted that many school publications made more effort to stand high in yearbook contests than to further the personal development of the students and to render service to the school.

A similar opinion survey made in a particular institution today might give directors of publications courage to discontinue annuals and papers that appear to be of little value and to improve the quality of those that are most educationally helpful.

C. SOME PROBLEMS AND POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

The sponsor of student publications is confronted with many problems. Among these are the lack of basic policy with respect to the various publications, low standards of journalism, limited participation, the selection of staff, and the supervision and financing of the publication.

I. LACK OF BASIC POLICY

As in every other student activity, the sponsor and the group should be guided by definite and educationally sound objectives. This is often not the case. Each group is intent upon the immediate demands of the narrow situation, and frequently fails to synchronize with the larger purposes of the total publication program.

Before any publication is undertaken, the school must settle the following five questions of policy, otherwise the staffs may find their ventures unsuccessful:

1. The need for a school publication should be canvassed and the character of the publication to be attempted should be determined in accordance with the school's needs.

2. Some person of the adult personnel of the school, capable and willing to assume the responsibility of directing the project, must be secured for sponsor. The success of the paper depends upon this key-official.

3. Competent students must be secured for the positions of responsibility on the publication staff.

4. Before undertaking the regular publication of a school paper, the ability of the student body and the school faculty to maintain the degree of sustained effort required to carry the project through to a successful finish must be determined.

5. The major problems which relate to the business management of publications, including a group of petty minor problems . . . must be considered *in toto* and properly arranged for, before the success of a school publication can be assured (474:141-42, 1926).

After policies have been determined, problems of organization and relationship arise within a school or college, or among the schools of a city system. Fretwell has offered an excellent practical solution for this problem:

A school that has two or more publications may find that these publications overlap each other in content, organization, and appeal, and that there may be conflict in policy as well as an unhealthy rivalry. . . . A board of publications may help coördinate all conflicting interests and develop a school policy governing all school publications. Such a board may be composed of the editors, business managers, and advisers of all publications, the head of the English Department, the adviser of boys, the adviser of girls, the director of extracurricular activities, the president of the student council, and the principal or his representative (212:314, 1931).

In some systems this would not need to be as large a group, but it is a wise thing to encourage any plan which leads to co-operation among students. The city of Cleveland has been very successful along this line. The thirteen senior high schools are kept informed of what is going on in the world of student publications by a director of publications. The teachers have formed an Association of Teachers of Journalism, and this organization is very active, meeting once a month to discuss common and individual problems. The students working on publications formed a Hi-Press Club which meets once in three weeks at different schools and has a representative of one of the daily newspapers talk to them about some phase of newspaper work (212:315-16, 1931). The staff members should make a schedule of their publication dates and outline the nature of their publications.

2. LOW STANDARDS OF JOURNALISM

Standards of journalism must be maintained. If there are no recognized standards in the publications, the educational value is small. All concerned with student publications should feel responsibility for giving subscribers their money's worth. The literary quality of the best college publications equals that of the average of general newspapers. Their content, however, reflects an amazing lack of interest in the world outside the college.

After standards have been raised and recognized, the school is next confronted with the task of helping the students acquire the necessary knowledge and skill to perform their journalistic assignments.

A number of schools have decided that the best way to secure the necessary careful training is through a class in journalism under the

direction of the English Department (73, 1924). In the course of such training students should not get the notion that work on the school paper will prepare them to be journalists. Roemer and Allen state this point emphatically:

The high school can no more educate and train the journalist than it can the doctor or lawyer. True, some high-school graduates can do newspaper work probably quite as well as some newspaper workers are now doing it, but the teacher who encourages a high-school pupil to go directly into journalistic work, in which writing after all forms but a small part, is doing violence to both the pupil and the profession of journalism (494:451-52, 1929).

In 1929 academic credit for work on the newspaper or magazine staff was the exception rather than the rule. A large proportion, however, received money for their work on college publications (380, 1929).

3. LIMITED PARTICIPATION

Surveys have shown a relatively small proportion of students engaged in school publications. For example, Brooks (63, 1924) reported that a very small proportion of students—only ninety-one out of a total enrollment of 3,681—at Northwestern University devoted part of their time to student publications. As a result of this narrow participation, some students were spending a very large amount of time on this activity, while others who would profit by such experience in journalism were being deprived of the opportunity. Journalism in high school or college is a student activity that may be employed to encourage written expression and co-operative activity on the part of the entire student body.

4. SELECTION OF STAFF

The selection of the newspaper staff presents many problems. In college

the directing editorships are positions of honor and profit, most earnestly sought. The editors must build up and maintain a competitive process that will weed out the unfit and bring the best men into final positions of power. To do this they invite freshmen to compete as reporters, and from among them the best are selected to continue throughout the sophomore year. These again are weeded out to make the junior staff, and from the juniors the lucky two or three are chosen for directing positions in the senior year (298:284, 1932).

Information about this aspect of college publications was obtained

from fifty-eight colleges and universities (419, 1929). The manner of selecting members of the publications' staffs varied in these institutions. In thirty of them the faculty had some part in the selection of the editor in chief. Faculty control ranged from selection by a committee of the faculty or a faculty adviser to selection by a joint committee of students and faculty, a board of control, or the student body's vote on faculty nominees. In the other institutions the editor in chief was selected by the student council without restrictions, or by the student council, the former staff, students in journalism, or the retiring editor. In three cases the editor in chief obtained his office through uniform succession and, in one case, on a competitive basis.

The business manager was most frequently selected by a joint committee of students and faculty. In the majority of cases the associate editors and other staff members were selected by the editor in chief.

The qualifications of the various officers were also studied (419, 1929). In slightly fewer than half of the institutions certain courses or standing in English and a certain scholastic level were required of the editor in chief. All but twenty of the institutions required that he be above freshman rank. For associate editors and other staff members proficiency in writing seems to be the usual requirement.

5. SUPERVISION AND CENSORSHIP OF STUDENT PUBLICATIONS

Although there are technical advantages in having the school paper under the direct supervision of the department of journalism or English, many colleges and secondary schools are opposed to this policy on the grounds that such supervision might interfere with students' expression, initiative, and feeling of responsibility.

This problem of student *versus* faculty control in connection with student publications looms large on some campuses. A student expressed the conflict as follows:

This is the status of the new journalism in the colleges: On the one hand an increasing group of young editors bent upon securing a greater measure of freedom of expression; on the other an equally determined army of presidents, faculty members, and reactionary alumni determined that open and frank student treatment of controversial topics be stopped at all costs (560:581, 1926).

According to Nelson (419, 1929), faculty censorship appears to be more common in teachers' colleges than in other institutions. Hop-

wood (275, 1926) attributed the lack of inspiration, which might be expected of student writers at "the most emotional, enthusiastic, and impressionable time of their lives," to the "dead hand of the faculty," hampering their enterprise.

Perhaps the most enlightening statement is that of Bakeless:

But no periodical was ever successful without stepping on somebody's toes occasionally; and gross lapses of fact or taste can be guarded against easily enough where student government exists. It is only necessary to re-enact the state law against obscenity and libel as part of the laws of the student government, and enforce penalties accordingly. This avoids the objectionable and essentially un-American practice of censorship, to which educational authorities resort far too easily, and which is doubly objectionable because it makes the school or college administration at least implicitly responsible for everything printed (22:475, 1933).

6. FINANCING OF STUDENT ACTIVITIES

The financing of school publications presents a perennial problem. "There are three ways [of financing a paper]: by subsidy, by subscription or sales, and by advertising" (494:459, 1929). It is generally only in the early stages of a paper's life that a subsidy is necessary, as most schools feel that their paper should be self-supporting. It was found by Terry in 1930, in an investigation of this aspect of newspapers, that the annual cost of publishing a newspaper in the average city high school was between \$850 and \$1,000. Income from subscriptions is seldom sufficient to cover the costs of publication, except in schools that are equipped with printing facilities (572:202, 1930).

The question of advertising is a very important one. Frequently the business aspect necessary to put the publication on a sound financial basis runs counter to certain social responsibilities. For example, the most remunerative ads are usually those which encourage the use of products disapproved by college authority. In this connection the stand taken by Syracuse in regard to cigarette advertising is pertinent (296, 1932). In that situation the staff was willing to face financial difficulty rather than accept advertising contrary to the principles of the college.

The solution of these problems demands both sensitivity to students' needs and technical knowledge and skill in the field of journalism. Through co-operative study of each problem students and sponsors will be able to work out satisfactory policies and procedures.

D. THE SCHOOL NEWSPAPER

Of all the student publications the school newspaper is the most responsive instrument of the student body and its most expressive voice. Although more transitory in its influence than the annual or the handbook, it usually deals with more vital issues.

Although one school newspaper was reported as early as 1870, the majority of schools did not publish newspapers until after the World War. In 1929 McNeil (380, 1929) stated that there were, at that time, more than four hundred papers published at least once a week. Of this number thirty-two were college dailies, ranging in size from four to thirty-two pages.

More important than the size of the newspaper or the frequency with which it is issued is the quality of its contents. An examination of the content of both high school and college newspapers indicates much room for improvement. Although it is generally agreed that the newspaper should concern itself with real educational problems, few college publications achieve this standard. An analysis of news of extra-curriculum activities appearing in 447 issues of newspapers in tax-supported colleges in all sections of the country showed the following proportion of space devoted to different topics (175: 29, 1932):

Item	Per Cent
Interscholar sports.....	37
Literary, musical, and club activities.....	28
Society.....	26
Intraschool sports.....	4
Religious and moral training.....	4
Student government.....	1
Total for extra-curriculum activities.....	100

It is encouraging to note that, in these publications, a preponderance of space was not devoted to athletics but that a balanced distribution of college news was maintained.

A new development is the newsreel, introduced as a supplement to the school paper. In Western High School of Detroit, Michigan (511, 1937), the athletic department supported it because the bi-weekly pictures of games increased interest in the athletic program. Later other activities were also included in the reel. Among the films developed were pictures of each class for subsequent class days, a student-produced comedy, laboratory techniques, and slow motion pictures for athletic coaching. The cost of filming a program was ten to twelve dollars for two hundred feet of film, providing eight to ten

minutes of display. The cost of all equipment, aside from screen and projector, was under one hundred dollars.

Closely associated with the subject of what school papers publish is the question of what students read in these college papers. According to Horton's study (276, 1934) of the reading interests of students in two colleges, the men's greatest interest was in sports; the women's, in "campus gossip"—though the men were also interested in the latter. Men were least interested in society news—more than 60 per cent of the freshman boys never read it. Even the women were not especially interested in it. The "Collegiate Digest" section attracted the greatest attention of all, while the editorial page appeared to be the most neglected.

The school paper may influence community as well as student opinion. Snyder (536, 1933) obtained evidence that the high school paper was read by parents, patrons, and teachers as well as by students. The following five features received the widest attention: the honor roll, humor, pictures and cuts, a humorous and philosophical column, and news concerning the activities of school clubs. Parents and patrons expressed an interest in the paper as a whole, not merely in the material written to appeal only to them. Thus the school paper may form a valuable link between the school and the community.

E. THE ANNUAL

The yearbook, or annual, is a student publication designed primarily to give the history of a school for the year in which it is issued. As early as 1806, Yale published a booklet entitled "Profiles of Part of the Class Graduated at Yale College." But this early publication resembled the old photograph album to a greater extent than the modern college annual (173, 1935). The latter was born about 1880. Of the three types of annual—the literary, the class-book, and the historical—the literary is rapidly disappearing; the expensive classbook is not sufficiently universal in its appeal; and the historical type has persisted because it portrays the activities of the school.

The contents of many annuals have been subject to analysis and criticism. An analysis of one hundred annuals (196, 1932) selected at random from more than four hundred high school annuals entered in an all-American yearbook contest in 1927, showed the following facts:

The range in pages was from 56 to 272, the average number of pages being 159.7. Approximately one-third of this space was devoted to photographs.

A central theme was found in 84 per cent of the books.

Senior news and advertising each occupied approximately 15 per cent of the pages. Boys' athletics and clubs were given the next largest number of pages, while other classes and numerous other topics were each allotted only a small amount of space.

Very few schools used the annuals as opportunities to give vocational guidance.

On one policy there was general agreement, namely, that the annual should contain a record of events for the year, and that work on it should begin early in the school year.

Just criticism of the annual has been concentrated on its extravagant production. Around 1921 the costs of annuals skyrocketed.

In one of the Eastern colleges, the 1920 book, the greatest produced in a long line of annuals that college had sponsored since 1893, cost about eight thousand dollars and had a circulation of approximately twelve hundred copies. In the same college, the 1921 book was produced at a cost of nearly forty thousand dollars and reached a circulation of nearly fifty-five hundred copies (173:124-25, 1935).

Burges Johnson, in writing of this phase of the college annual, says, "About \$3,000,000 is spent annually" (297:62, 1935). It is safe to say that (1) in scores of colleges the book is insolvent, (2) the accounts show a deficit, (3) "inexperienced boys are handling funds ranging from two to twenty-five thousand dollars annually, collecting the money in unbusiness-like ways, expending it upon an inefficiently and extravagantly planned book" (297:62, 1935). For example, the annual is published at a retail price of six dollars and the manufacturing cost is seven dollars, because of the undergraduate desire to "keep up with Lizzie." The deficit is made up in part by ads, in part by a tax on organizations.

In high schools as well as in colleges there is a demand for less expensive annuals. In a small high school in Arizona (215, 1934) the cost of the annual was \$37.14 for each member of the senior class. In another high school a mimeographed annual, including designs, sketches, cartoons, and pictures, was produced at a cost of only eighteen cents a copy.

To remedy this bad financial situation, the following plan was proposed and is now widely used: The budget for the annual is based on a fixed subscription price, plus contributions from classes, a conservative estimate of ads, and a greatly reduced tax on organizations. With this amount thus assured, reputable printers are invited to submit dummies, with the understanding that the printer will be

responsible for all costs. As the business manager then has to pay only the single bill to the printer, the possibility of bribery or corruption is practically eliminated.

In other high schools where the cost of an annual is prohibitive, one issue of the monthly magazine, dedicated to the senior class, may take the place of the annual. Being a little more artistic in make-up than the regular issues, and containing the photographs of the members of the senior class, such an edition satisfies the desire of students for a record of each high school year at only a slight additional expense.

F. THE SCHOOL MAGAZINE

The school magazine presents a wider range in content and form than any of the other school publications. Three types of magazine may be distinguished: the monthly booklet containing articles of literary or humorous nature; the magazine page inserted regularly in a student newspaper, and devoted to feature stories, human interest stories, and creative writing; and the magazine supplement of the newspaper, containing the highest quality of stories, essays, poems, feature articles, and cartoons (616, 1930).

In his newspaper the student is a highly moral, law-abiding, God-fearing young man; in his humorous magazines, quite otherwise. The humorous magazines, far more than the college newspaper, are affected by the individuality of the editor and reflect less "the dead hand of the faculty." An analysis of six leading college humorous magazines showed the following frequencies of different types of items:

Girl items.....	123
Off-color girl items.....	21
College and faculty.....	63
General items.....	174

There seems to be little definite policy and no very definite standards in the great majority of the humorous magazines. Critics ought to remember, however, that college humor is written by college undergraduates for college undergraduates.

In general, the magazine appears to be less common in the college than in the high school. Johnson (298, 1932), writing in 1932, stated that out of a list of seventy-five colleges, representing the older and better endowed institutions in all sections of the country, twenty-five reported that their students issued a literary magazine, and eight of these were in financial difficulty. Thirty institutions had

no literary publications, and twenty published a magazine subsidized by the English department.

Jones (305, 1935), three years later, reported that the magazine was an extra-curriculum undertaking in 86 per cent of the 269 public high schools surveyed. He found no significant tendency toward change in the curricular status of the magazine.

Fretwell's point of view regarding the school magazine represents a forward-looking attitude:

The literary magazine as an extra-curricular activity should grow out of the curricular life of the school. . . . If the school desires to have a literary magazine, the place to begin is not in the magazine itself, but in developing really creative work in the various English classes. The best of this creative work may find an outlet in the magazine. . . . As the schools grow in the direction of creative writing, the ability to produce and to appreciate the literary magazine will probably develop (212: 344-45, 1931).

G. THE HANDBOOK

The student handbook is a school publication that explains the organization, administration, functions, aims, traditions, opportunities, and ideals of a particular school. Its purpose is to help orient the new student. If it is successful in fulfilling this function, it becomes an important social-civic influence in the school.

Institutions of higher learning provided handbooks for their students earlier than did the high school. But the rapid increase in enrollment of the secondary school, and the increasing complexity of its offerings and organization created a demand for handbooks on that educational level. Between 1924 and 1929 a great deal was written on the organization and content of the handbook. Since that time comparatively little new material has been published.

No two handbooks have the same content. This variation is to be expected and commended because of individual differences in the schools. Many plans of organization have been proposed. Kershaw and Carback (318:591-93, 1924) suggested that the following are the eight divisions into which the content of most books seems to fall: (1) items of inspirational value promoting school spirit, (2) legal control and standard practices of administration, (3) curriculum guidance, (4) guidance for education beyond the high school, (5) vocational guidance, (6) personal guidance, (7) guidance in opportunities and practices of good school citizenship, (8) miscellaneous aids.

McKown (375:491, 1937) named five classifications: (1) general

information, (2) organization of the school, (3) program of studies, (4) student organizations and activities, (5) school routine, customs, traditions, etc.

Earlier McKown (376, 1924) analyzed 212 handbooks, showing the frequency of each item which was discussed in at least one paragraph. In a similar detailed study of 233 high school handbooks from thirty-five states, Rea (469, 1927) found 192 different items discussed. Items that appeared twenty-five or more times in the two studies are as follows:

Items	Frequency	
	Rea	McKown
Activities.....	167	
Date of publication.....	165	148
Course of study.....	163	154
Athletics.....	158	
Attendance regulations.....	145	121
School songs.....	143	145
Pupil organizations.....	137	188
Daily schedule.....	133	92
Library information.....	131	70
Clubs.....	129	37
Names of faculty.....	128	140
School yells.....	128	138
Plans of building and grounds.....	127	31
Introduction and foreword.....	120	47
College entrance requirements.....	117	78
History of school.....	107	60
Assemblies.....	104	
Lost and found.....	100	58
Awards.....	96	50
Requirements for graduation.....	95	81
Report cards.....	95	52
Cafeteria.....	94	86
Tardiness.....	93	
Pictures of building.....	92	
Lockers.....	86	60
Pictures of people.....	86	41
Fire drill.....	85	72
General information.....	85	
School calendar.....	85	64
Marks and marking.....	81	59
Organization publishing.....	81	80
Scholarships.....	79	58
Blank memorandum space.....	78	48
Social life.....	75	
Index.....	71	59
Honor society.....	69	
Table of contents.....	68	71
How to study.....	67	55
Honor rolls.....	64	56
Telephone regulations.....	63	31
Athletic rules.....	60	62
Names of handbook staff.....	60	47

GROUP ACTIVITIES

Items	Frequency	
	Rea	McKown
Greetings.....	55	35
Board of education, names.....	55	25
Traffic regulations.....	54	49
Ideals.....	52	
Health regulations.....	51	
Constitution and by-laws.....	51	98
Bell system.....	50	
Directory of building.....	50	61
Letter wearers.....	44	33
Space for owner's name.....	44	36
Admission regulations.....	43	32
Credits.....	43	57
Athletic records.....	42	38
Fees and tuition.....	42	
Bulletin boards.....	39	35
Care of building.....	39	45
Athletic schedules.....	38	46
Advisers.....	38	45
Banking.....	37	
Manners and courtesy.....	37	49
Study hall rules.....	36	44
Summer school.....	34	
Homerom.....	33	
P.T.A.....	33	
Home work.....	32	45
Point system.....	32	
School spirit.....	31	
Supplies.....	31	
School colors.....	30	34
Alumni association.....	29	
Dedication of book.....	29	27
Publications.....	29	
Smoking regulations.....	29	26
Aims of school.....	27	31
Do and don't.....	27	
Pass slips.....	26	25
Trophies.....	26	
Traditions.....	26	
Book exchange.....	25	
Examinations.....	25	38
Student schedule blank.....		59
Registration rules.....		51
Vocational guidance.....		45
Working papers.....		42
Textbooks.....		40
Transfer and discharge.....		36
Regents' examinations.....		35
Visitors.....		34
Advertisements.....		30
Entering and leaving.....		29
Rules for organizations.....		28
Rules for office holding.....		28
Flag salute.....		26
Employment.....		26

Two items of importance to college students, frequently omitted in the handbook, are "fraternities and sororities" and "faculty ability and relationships." Although existing handbooks do not meet students' needs to the fullest extent, they are improving in content and form.

The cost of the handbook is defrayed in various ways—sometimes by the board of education, sometimes by funds which students raise, sometimes by charging a small fee, and less often by obtaining advertisements. In order to keep the cost at a minimum, a majority of schools publish the handbooks every two or three years. Another way to reduce expenses is to purchase plates of relatively permanent material from the printer and use these plates for a number of editions.

Closely related to cost is the size and style of the handbook. The range in size varied from two and one-half to four by six inches or larger, and the number of pages from ten to two hundred. A size small enough to fit the pocket seems to be preferred. Obviously the type should be legible, the paper of good quality, and the whole booklet readable and attractive in appearance.

Responsibility for publishing the handbook is assumed by various groups. By means of an analysis of 110 handbooks McKown (376, 1924) found that forty-two of the sixty that supplied information on the publisher were published by the student government. The board of education, parent-teachers associations, alumni, faculty, and various school clubs were responsible for the publication of the remaining eighteen. Examination of other handbooks has shown the board of education and student council to be most often responsible for the publication of the handbook. But occasionally the handbook is published by an English class, the athletic council, the guidance committee of the girls' club, or the dean's office.

The editorial staff of the handbook usually consists of representatives from each class. As supervisor, a well-qualified teacher, generally in journalism, is appointed. "The few handbooks received which were the work of teachers or administrators rather than co-operative student work do not show any superiority in plan or literary execution over those prepared by pupils" (318:595, 1924). Moreover, students are probably better qualified than teachers to interpret school ideals and practices to other students, for they are more likely to speak the same language.

There are distinct educational values in making the publication of the handbook a direct responsibility of the students. Chief among these is the opportunity offered for students to participate actively in

formulating the rules and regulations of their school. Other values have been expressed by Wells and McCalister (616, 1930), as follows:

Before students can tell others about their school, they must know the school themselves. They must feel that their school is not merely a structure composed of so many bricks and so much mortar and steel, but that it is a living organism of which they are important parts, that this organism has a spirit, and that they are helping to mold and direct this spirit. The morale of the entire school may be changed by producing a handbook; instead of hazing every freshman who enters, students see in each newcomer an opportunity to render service: school becomes a co-operative enterprise (616:76, 1930).

H. CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

Because certain student publications have become a tradition and are closely allied to the curriculum, they have undergone less modification than many of the more mobile groups. Modification should be made, however, in several directions. While maintaining standards of good journalism, the sponsor should be sure that values to the individual student are realized and extended. While giving the necessary expert assistance, he should not unnecessarily curb or inhibit the students' creative expression. While endeavoring to have produced as fine a product as possible, he should carefully weigh relative values to the student and to the school.

The storm center with respect to the newspaper has been around the question of censorship. Controversy over the annual has centered on its cost and content. The school magazine has tended to be wrecked on either of two extremes—being too Victorian or too risqué. The handbook has tended to be too dull and too adult in outlook; it should be written for the students, and by the students who have gained respect for laws through having had a share in their making.

I. RESEARCH NEEDED

Since practically no research has been done in this field, the investigator may stake out his claim to any one of a number of studies. He may ascertain trends by repeating the best methods of investigation employed in the same institutions ten or twenty years ago. Thus he may ascertain changes that have taken place in the kinds of publications, the values emphasized, the extent of student participation in each kind of publication, the content of each publication, and its staffing, supervision, financing, and management.

But the investigator should not be content with a description of these details of machinery. He should try to discover the effect that school publications have upon those who write and manage them, and upon those who read them in the school and in the community. Such researches would require personal data about the students, extensive interviewing and observation, time schedules and introspective reports made by the students, and analysis of the publications. With such data on hand the investigator would be able to study the contribution different students make to a particular publication, and the contribution which that publication makes to the development of the individual student.

CHAPTER IX

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARTICIPATION IN GROUP ACTIVITIES AND OTHER FACTORS

THE scientific study of the relationship between participation in student activities and other factors presents many difficulties. Initial difficulty is encountered in setting up criteria for selecting participants. Various criteria have been proposed: mere membership in any activity group, definite achievement or a certain amount of consistent contribution as a member, office holding in the group, and rating according to a point system. Certainly the terms *participation*, *scholarship*, *intelligence*, and *success* should be precisely defined.

Even though *participants* and *nonparticipants* may be adequately defined and grouped, these groups are usually treated as homogeneous. Actually each group is composed of persons so different in many respects that the relationships to be studied are certain to be affected by the heterogeneity.

Another difficulty lies in the failure to control important factors other than the experimental factor. For example, the relationship between scholarship and participation in group activities has little meaning unless other factors such as intelligence, time spent in remunerative work, health, and reading ability are controlled.

The researches already made have employed, almost exclusively, quantitative methods of treating the data, when the results would have been rendered more significant by the use of case study data. By means of case study data the investigator may uncover hypotheses for further study, interpret more adequately statistical findings, illustrate the complexity and interrelations of factors, and gain insights particularly useful for counseling.

Within these limitations, two relationships have been extensively studied, namely, intelligence and participation in group activities, and scholarship and participation in group activities. Less work has been done on the relationship between students' group activity in high school and college and their latter "success in life"—a factor most inadequately defined and appraised.

In order to make provision for individual differences, the personnel worker should know what kind of student is attracted to various

group activities. Do the more intelligent tend to engage in a larger number of activities than the less intelligent? Do they prefer the more academic type of activity, leaving the social and athletic groups to those who are average or inferior? Do those who engage in student activities have higher scholarship than those who do not? Do they more nearly work up to their capacity than those who do not? Are they more successful in other ways?

Obviously there are no general answers to these questions because the attitude and policy with respect to student activities varies from institution to institution, and determines to a large extent membership and leadership in each group. The investigations reviewed supply information on the relationships in the institutions studied, but not necessarily in others. Accordingly, the results of research in each institution will be presented as a unit rather than a more rigid classification of findings under specific topics.

A. EXAMPLE OF AN OUTSTANDING STUDY OF RELATIONSHIP

The analysis made by Crawford (129, 1928) at Yale of the relationship between participation in extra-curriculum activities, scholarship, and intelligence is one of the earliest and one of the most detailed and discriminating in this field. The data were assembled from administrative records supplemented by time charts submitted by students. The selective factor entering in was recognized: a larger proportion of replies were received from students prominent in activities than from those who did not engage in them; approximately two-thirds of the active group returned time charts, as contrasted with less than half of the nonparticipants. The entire undergraduate body of the classes of 1926, 1927, 1928, and 1929 was listed in four divisions:

1. Students in activities and self-supporting.
2. Students in activities and not self-supporting.
3. Students not in activities *but* self-supporting.
4. Students not in activities and not self-supporting.

The data thus collected showed the students in activities to be superior to those not in activities with respect to mental ratings (difference .07 S.D.); more superior in subject grades (difference about .30 S.D.); and still more superior in the correlation between the two. An analysis of all students engaged in any extra-class activity, including those both self-supporting and not self-supporting, showed the nonparticipants to be two and one-half points in scholastic averages below their more active fellows. It was the students who

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were neither in activities nor were self-supporting who made the lowest records of all. The self-supporting students made about the same grades regardless of their participation in student activities, but the non-self-supporting students varied widely in the grades they obtained.

Some of the details of relationship are presented in Tables II and III. In Table I the reader may compare scholastically students in

TABLE II (129: 124, 1928)

STUDENTS OF FOUR YALE CLASSES IN EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES COMPARED SCHOLASTICALLY WITH THOSE IN SAME CLASSES NOT SO ENGAGED

	No. of Cases	Average Class- Room Grades for Total Work to Date	PE _m	Mental Test Rating X/ σ	Correlation Between Men- tal Ratings and Grades	PE _r
All students in extra-curriculum activities.	1,244	76.4	0.1	+0.04	.46	0.01
All students not in extra-curriculum activities.	1,399	74.6	0.1	-0.03	.30	0.02
Self-supporting students in activities....	407	77.1	0.2	+0.06	.49	0.02
Self-supporting students not in activities	403	76.8	0.2	0.00	.33	0.02
Non-self-supporting students in activities.	835	76.0	0.1	+0.02	.44	0.02
Non-self-supporting students not in activities.....	996	74.0	0.1	-0.05	.29	0.02
All students in activities or self-supporting or both.....	1,647	76.5	0.1	+0.03	.43	0.01
Students neither in activities nor self-supporting.....	996	74.0	0.1	-0.05	.29	0.02
Total for whom complete data are available.....	2,643	75.4	0.1	0.00	.41	0.01

four Yale classes who engaged in extra-curriculum activities with students in the same classes not in activities. These groups are subdivided into self-supporting and non-self-supporting students. In Table III relationships in each of the major groups of activities are presented.

It will be noted that differences in mental ratings and grades between those in athletics and those in non-athletic extra-curriculum pursuits were small, but in favor of the students engaged in non-

athletic activities. Athletes on football and baseball teams attained somewhat lower scholastic averages than those engaged in other sports, but, in general the major sports showed the highest correlations between mental ratings and grades.

Judging from these results, one may conclude that certain extra-curriculum activities may actually be favorably related to classroom work. In other words, student activities may serve as a secondary incentive to study. Such indirect scholastic motivation may be promoted by scholastic requirements for membership in activities or by the

TABLE III (129: 126, 1928)
STUDENTS IN EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES COMPARED
WITH THOSE NOT SO ENGAGED

Activities	No. of Cases	Scholastic Average to Date	PE _m	Mental Test Rating \bar{X}/σ	Correlation Between Mental Rating and Grades	PE _r	No. Returning Time Charts	Mean Time Reported Spent in Study (per Week)	Mean Time Reported Spent in Extra-Curriculum Activities (per Week)
Football.....	175	73.8	0.3	-0.22	.66	0.03	102	19.7	8.2
Baseball.....	101	73.9	0.4	-0.28	.54	0.04	48	20.1	9.3
Crew.....	217	76.6	0.3	+0.29	.52	0.03	153	19.4	7.4
Track.....	221	75.6	0.3	-0.12	.49	0.03	117	21.0	9.2
Hockey.....	64	76.5	0.6	-0.19	.10	0.08	31	19.8	7.8
Five major sports..	547	75.4	0.1	-0.04	.55	0.02	451	20.0	8.4
Minor sports.....	808	76.3	0.1	-0.06	.42	0.02	402	20.5	8.3
All athletics.....	1,063	75.9	0.1	-0.10	.48	0.01	853	20.2	8.4
Publication boards.	193	76.9	0.3	+0.32	.41	0.04	142	18.5	12.5
Dramatic, debating, musical clubs.	252	77.5	0.3	+0.25	.51	0.03	148	21.0	12.0
All non-athletic activities.....	392	77.2	0.2	+0.28	.45	0.02	290	20.1	11.5
All students engaged in E C A (Net total).....	1,244	76.4	0.1	0.04	.48	0.02	884	20.2	9.9
All students not engaged in such activities.....	1,399	74.6	0.1	-0.03	.35	0.01	402	21.2
Entire undergraduate student body for whom data available.....	2,643	75.4	0.1	0.00	.41	0.01

stimulus and tonic effect resulting from enjoyable and successful group associations. Many of the superior students, however, might devote extra effort to study if their student activities were curbed. Certainly, as Crawford suggested, the influence of student activities and self-support must be recognized in this type of research.

The fact that undergraduates at Yale participating in student activities make better scholastic records, and measure up to their

scholastic potentialities to a higher degree than do nonparticipants may be explained by the lack of motivation in our present educational situation, thus making these secondary types of incentive effective, or by the activity students' greater zest and energy.

B. INTELLIGENCE AND PARTICIPATION IN GROUP ACTIVITIES

Crawford's results, with respect to intelligence, have, in many instances, been duplicated in other colleges and universities. At Colorado State Teachers College (500:35, 1930) the median scores of 154 students on the Thorndike Intelligence Examination were as follows:

For the activity group.....	68.25
For the nonactivity group.....	63.05

At Wittenberg College (395, 1932), during 1927-28, in every class, except the sophomore women, the students active in extra-curriculum activities had a higher average intelligence score than the less active students. One explanation of this relation is that the intellectually able students were using the extra-curriculum activities as a means of expending some of their surplus mental energy.

The results obtained with high school students likewise have, for the most part, been favorable to the groups engaging in student activities. For example, a comparison between participants and nonparticipants in major extra-curriculum activities in two Illinois high schools (410, 1929) indicated that, on the average, the students who participated in extra-curriculum activities were superior in general intelligence to those who did not. The correlations between scores on intelligence tests and school marks of participants and nonparticipants were as follows:

<i>Nonparticipants</i>	High School A	High School B
Boys.....	.24	.33
Girls.....	.42	.48
<i>Participants</i>		
Participating semesters		
Boys.....	.60	.52
Girls.....	.74	.61
Nonparticipating semesters		
Boys.....	.47	.61
Girls.....	.63	.50

It will be noted that the correlations between general intelligence and school marks are higher for participants than for nonparticipants, suggesting better motivation of the participants in the use of their mental ability or intelligence being the determining factor when time is limited. The higher correlation in the case of boys in School B during the semesters in which they were not participating

in extra-curriculum activities was out of line with all the other results, and was probably due to the variations in marks of a few boys of average or less than average intelligence.

Comparisons between specific activity groups with respect to intelligence have shown a slight superiority for those in activities of a predominantly intellectual rather than social or physical in nature. Data collected from 512 students in six high schools in Minneapolis (532, 1936) and from the same students in the University of Minnesota between 1925 and 1929 yielded the following facts about the relations of intelligence to extra-curriculum activities:

1. Dramatics and publications tended to attract the more intellectually able students in both high school and university. In high school the less able students tended to be found in the social, music, and athletic groups; while in the university, they were more likely to engage in religious and semi-curricular activities.
2. Although the correlations between scholastic aptitude and number of activities engaged in are low ($0.7 \pm .047$ for boys in high school; $.08 \pm .046$ for men in the university; $.13 \pm .038$ for women in high school; and $.16 \pm .038$ for women in the university), the medians computed for students engaged in varying numbers of activities showed a hierarchy of ability in direct relation to the number of activities carried.

Thompson (576, 1931) found one hundred successful high school debaters usually among the higher half of the class in intelligence, and seldom with an I.Q. much below 117. In the group studied, those who rated as most successful in debating were, on the average, higher in intelligence but not so definitely superior in their English marks.

Considerable interest has been shown in the relative mental rating of athletic groups.¹ Of two groups of 108 boys and 76 girls in Colorado high schools, half of each group being athletes and half being non-athletes (500:172-74, 1930), the following figures were reported:

	Difference	In favor of
Average age.....	5.78 months	Boy athletes
	1.86 months	Girl non-athletes
Score on Terman Group Test.....	15.15 points	Boy non-athletes
	4.11 points	Girl athletes
Score on Iowa High School Content Examination	12.85 points	Boy non-athletes
	3.13 points	Girl non-athletes
Learning ratio.....	1.24 points	Boy athletes
	5.25 points	Girl non-athletes

¹ See pages 172-173.

It will be noted that boy athletes are older, and lower in mental test score and achievement than the non-athletes. The same relationship does not hold in the case of the girl athletes.

To summarize, we find a general tendency for both high school and college students participating in informal group activities to have slightly higher scholastic potentialities than nonparticipants. Although we might expect students engaged in the more intellectual types of activities to have a higher mental rating, this is not always the case. Especially in the case of girl athletes, some evidence of superiority rather than inferiority in mental ability is available. No constant relationship has been obtained with all groups or with all individuals within a group in which the central tendency is in favor of participants. Whether participating students measure up to their scholastic potentialities to a higher degree than do those engaged in no student activities will be discussed in more detail in the following pages.

C. SCHOLARSHIP AND PARTICIPATION IN GROUP ACTIVITIES

The problem of scholarship arises in connection with initiating new activities, limiting membership in a particular activity, and evaluating the outcomes of an activity.

Excessive participation in extra-curriculum activities is frequently mentioned as a cause of poor scholarship, and participation in these activities is sometimes limited, or entirely prohibited, in the case of failing students. Enthusiasts for the extra-curriculum program, on the other hand, claim that these activities furnish incentives to study and that it is accordingly illogical to deprive failing students of the stimulus to achievement which participation in such activities is supposed to give (549:211, 1934).

Numerous investigations have been concerned with this moot question.

I. METHODS OF STUDY

Four major methods have been employed to study relationships among intelligence, scholarship, and extent of activity in groups. Means or medians on intelligence and scholarship of various groups have been compared. Coefficients of correlations between intelligence and scholarship for participants and nonparticipants have been computed. Scholarship averages for groups of participants and nonparticipants on the same level of intelligence have been compared,

and the multiple correlation technique has likewise been employed to hold certain factors constant.

Each investigator has applied one or more of these methods to different groups of students with results that are difficult to compare. Several examples of these investigations will serve to illustrate the methods used and the results obtained.

2. RESULTS IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

At Wittenberg College, the University of Minnesota (394, 1934), and the University of Colorado (322, 1929) the students who were active in campus activities tended to receive the highest grades in academic subjects. Those who participated in no extra-curriculum activities tended, on the average, to receive the lowest grades.

A similar conclusion as to the relationship between scholarship and participation in extra-curriculum activities was reached by Miller (403, 1937) employing a somewhat different method. Comparing a superior group of eighty-three with an average group of 554 graduates of four schools of the University of Pittsburgh, he obtained the following relations:

	Superior Group	Average Group
Percentage participating in extra-curriculum activities.....	75%	37%
Average number of activities in which individuals belonged..	2.24	0.99
Percentage elected to office at least once during the four years	54%	21%

Members of the superior group were twice as active as the average group in social, musical, and dramatic organizations, and seven times as active in debating. The conclusions arrived at by this method of treating the data for this sample corroborate results of other investigations.

At Purdue University (371, 1940) the first step in the study of the relation of women's extra-curriculum activities to certain other characteristics was to rate each activity on a scale of importance. For one hundred women graduates randomly selected from the class of 1939 ratings on activity, intelligence ratings, personality ratings, scholastic average, and number of semesters the student was on the "distinguished" student list were recorded. The relationships as indicated by coefficients of correlation were rather low. Activity scores correlated as follows with

Scores on American Council Psychological Examination.....	.33
Scholastic achievement.....	.37

Examination of the table of individual scores in the original article

is more significant to the personnel worker than the coefficients of correlation which are extremely difficult to interpret in view of the unreliability of the measures and the skewed distributions, especially of the personality ratings. The student having the highest activity rating (111) had a lower intelligence rating (60) than the three students having zero activity ratings (66, 85, 68 respectively). Her scholastic average (5.30), however, was definitely higher than that of the three students who had participated in no activities (4.45, 4.30, 3.71 respectively). Other individual cases likewise support the conclusion reached by other investigators, namely, that group activities appear to have a stimulating effect on the student which results in relatively high scholarship. Exceptions, of course, can be found, as, for example, the student whose activity rating was 9, intelligence rating 18, and scholastic average 4.06. Detailed study of some of these individual cases would be most enlightening. Personnel workers need to know what combination of personal qualities, habits, methods of work, and environmental conditions make it possible for a student with average intelligence rating to carry a very heavy activity load and still maintain a high scholastic average, while a student of higher mental ability engaging in no activities does mediocre academic work.

The effect of different degrees of participation is a phase of the problem that has received little attention. One study of one hundred college freshmen (543, 1929) supported the assumption that excessive participation in extra-curriculum activities may result in scholastic failure. It was found that those who indulged excessively in extra-curriculum activities had twice as great a chance of failing as the students whose participation was moderate. "Excessive participation," however, is difficult to define. What constitutes an extra-curriculum burden for one student or for a group in one institution may constitute a light load for another student or another group.

A meticulous investigation (162, 1935) at Susquehanna University employed an intricate system of paired comparisons in which intelligence was the same and participation in extra-curriculum different for each pair. In twelve of the thirteen group comparisons, involving, in all, 364 cases, the college students who participated only a little or not at all in extra-curriculum activities proved to be the academically inferior students. Students who participated in three, four, or five extra-curriculum activities made average quality points definitely higher than those students who participated in only one or two activities. No evidence was obtained that curtailment of outside activities is a guarantee of improved scholarship.

When the activity records of failing students are examined, it is usually found that students on probation and those dismissed from college for deficient scholarship are as frequently or more frequently found among the nonparticipants as among the participants in student activities.

Possibly the students who participate most actively have more interests, a more progressive spirit, and a richer social outlook than the others, even though the general intelligence is the same for both groups. The participants may also have a greater vigor of mind and body, which is applied to the curriculum as well as to the extra-curriculum.

At the University of Colorado (322, 1929) the mean scholarship points of the students participating in student activities was 1.37 points higher than the mean of the nonactive group, and 1.34 points higher than the mean of the student body as a whole. These differences seem to be statistically significant.

More detailed analysis, made by the same investigators, indicated a relationship between scholarship and the kind of activity. When the extra-curriculum activity was similar in nature to the academic work, the students' scholarship tended to rank higher than when the nature of the activity was different from the academic work. It was also noted that participation by men in more than two activities seemed to be associated with poorer scholarship, whereas this was not true in the case of women students.

A detailed analysis of the median scholarship quotients² of different groups of students at Wittenberg College was made by Mehus (394, 1934). The figures for some of the group were as follows:

Men athletes.....	1.92	Men non-athletes.....	2.12
Men athletes		Men non-athletes	
(Freshmen).....	1.88	(Freshmen).....	2.13
(Sophomore).....	2.09	(Sophomore).....	2.11

The scholarship quotient for women athletes was higher in every class than for men athletes.

Fraternity men.....	2.09	Non-fraternity men.....	2.10
Sorority women.....	2.60	Non-sorority women.....	2.46
Active in religious organizations		Not active in religious organizations	
Men.....	2.29	Men.....	1.99
Women.....	2.62	Women.....	2.40
Earn money while in college		Do not earn while in college	
Men.....	2.20	Men.....	2.01
Women.....	2.44	Women.....	2.53

Other median scholarship quotients of men were as follows:

² Scholarship quotient is obtained by dividing the number of quality points by the number of credit hours. Each credit hour of *A* was assigned 4 quality points; *B*, 3; *C*, 2; and *D*, 1.

GROUP ACTIVITIES

Professional societies.....	2.88
Honor societies.....	2.43
Publications.....	2.38
Dramatics.....	2.33
Campus religious activities.....	2.29
Departmental clubs.....	2.26
Music.....	2.23
Those earning money.....	2.20
Fraternities.....	2.09
All men.....	2.09
Church or religious work off campus.....	2.03
Athletics.....	1.92

Median scholarship quotients in other activities (total group of women) were as follows:

Oratory and debate.....	3.48
Honor societies.....	3.25
Dramatics.....	3.04
Professional societies.....	3.03
Publications.....	2.71
Departmental clubs.....	2.71
Campus religious activities.....	2.62
Sororities.....	2.60
Athletics.....	2.57
All women.....	2.50
Church or religious work off campus.....	2.50
Women earning money.....	2.44
Music.....	2.28

These details show specifically gross scholarship differences obtained in one college group.

Dietrich (150, 1940) studied the more limited aspect of relationship between participation in extra-curriculum dramatics and scholastic achievement in two universities. He ascertained exactly how much time students were devoting to dramatics for which they received no academic credit and where they found the time. The week by week record of average number of hours spent on dramatics by each student showed a range of from 0 to 17.8 hours. Although the work as a whole was concentrated in the weeks immediately preceding the production of a play, in all but four weeks students were spending, on the average, more than five hours a week in dramatic work. Despite this expenditure of time in extra-class dramatic activities, the group participating made a definitely higher scholastic average than a control group, and also than university students as a whole. The average grades were as follows:

	Number in Group	Average Grade	P.E. Ave.
First Semester			
Dramatic group.....	72	4.031	.053
Control group.....	72	3.750	.061
University undergraduates...	6240	3.740	

Second Semester			
Dramatic group.....	78	4.186	.053
Control group.....	78	3.831	.057
University undergraduates...	6057	3.812	

The critical ratio for the first semester was 3.45, indicating 99 chances in 100 that the difference was greater than pure chance. For the second semester the critical ratio was still larger, 4.61.

Further analysis of the data showed no constant relationship between the students' total amount of participation in dramatics and their scholastic achievement. Nor was scholarship better when students were not actively engaged in dramatics. In fact, the weekly grades of a small number of students were higher during the weeks in which they were concentrating on the production of a play. Results from the University of Wisconsin supported the main conclusion that, in these two situations and ones similar to them, "neither participation nor the amount of participation in extra-curricular dramatics has any observable effect upon scholastic achievement" (150:28, 1940). Only in two individual cases did participation in dramatics appear to have an unfavorable effect on scholarship. These individual cases, however, are of concern to the personnel worker who should be alert to discover students who are not able to carry both a heavy load of extra-curriculum activities and maintain an optimum level of scholastic achievement. Considerable space has been devoted to this investigation because it is an admirable example of limitation of a problem, careful collection of data and statistical treatment, analysis in terms of individual cases as well as groups, and practical application of the findings.

Differences between fraternity and non-fraternity groups have been extensively studied. An analysis of data (331, 1936) on 682 freshmen at Ohio University illustrates the complexity of the problem of studying the influence of fraternity environment on scholarship of students. The first problem is one of defining the groups to be studied. Although the pledges as a whole were not differentiated from the average student with regard to intelligence, the pledges who were initiated were definitely superior in intelligence:

277 pledges initiated.....	61 median intelligence percentile
244 pledges not initiated.....	49 median intelligence percentile

The selective factor is still more strongly operative in respect to scholarship figures:

Over a five-year period the mean point-hour ratio
of 277 initiated pledges was 1.450
of 242 uninitiated pledges, 0.740

More than 97 per cent of initiates reached or exceeded the median of those not initiated. The group of pledges not initiated, constituting approximately 40 per cent of freshmen fraternity pledges at Ohio University, have been ignored in other investigations. The results for the three groups were as follows:

Mean point-hour ratio earned by	
initiates.....	1.420
pledges not initiated.....	0.762
control group of non-fraternity freshmen.	1.102

It is clear "that the fraternity initiates are a relatively select group of students and it is equally clear that university scholarship during the first semester on the campus is a much more potent differentiating factor than is test-intelligence" (331:454, 1936).

This investigation illustrates a number of problems involved in the study of this question. The first problem, that of defining groups to be studied, may be summarized by the following questions:

1. In what category shall the rejected pledge be placed? How can fraternity influence on him be measured?
2. How can the investigator identify students who spend more or less time and effort in the hope of being asked to join, but are not eventually asked? How can fraternity influence on them be measured?
3. If the group studied is limited to those initiated, how can a really adequate control group be selected?

The second problem is one of more adequate treatment of data. The statistical treatment of data does not tell the whole story. Although the central tendency of one group may be superior to the central tendency of another group, fraternity environments are, without doubt, favorable to the improvement of scholarship of some students and unfavorable to others.

The third problem is one of taking into consideration related factors. Economic and social factors are perhaps more potent in the student's scholastic achievement than the fraternity environment. Investigation of the relationship between scholarship and fraternity environment have neglected these factors.

The fourth problem is one of prediction. Each fraternity and sorority house exerts a somewhat different influence on the study methods of their members. Moreover, the influence is not exerted steadily over a period of time. Fraternity pledges are usually highly motivated prior to initiation, and sometimes during the entire freshman year. After that, the pressure on achievement may be reduced. Since this influence is intentional and diverse, it makes scholastic

performance of students in fraternities as a whole, though of course not in particular groups, less predictable than that of freshmen outside of these organized groups (94, 1934; 332, 1935; 381, 1933).

These problems of methodology are not peculiar to research on scholarship of fraternity and nonfraternity groups. The same difficulties, as suggested at the beginning of this chapter, must be faced in all studies of relationships in this field. Because of the many uncontrolled but influential factors, it is difficult to draw conclusions concerning the effect of fraternity environment or participation in group activities on the scholarship of students even when the groups are equated on the basis of intelligence test scores and marks.

3. RESULTS IN HIGH SCHOOL

Studies of high school students supply additional evidence of the possibly beneficial rather than detrimental effect of extra-curriculum activities on scholarship. Monroe (410, 1929) reported that the participation of students in high school extra-curriculum activities, instead of adversely affecting their scholastic standing, appeared to be beneficial. The figures presented in support of this generalization were as follows:

	No. of Pupils High School		Median I. Q. High School		Median Mark High School	
	A	B	A	B	A	B
Nonparticipants						
Boys.....	161	67	100.6	102	78.5	82
Girls.....	256	85	97.4	103	81.0	84
Participants						
Participating semesters						
Boys.....	75	53	101.4	109	81.9	82
Girls.....	37	25	105.4	116	89.3	88
Nonparticipating semesters						
Boys.....	45	53	103.0	109	82.8	81
Girls.....	32	25	105.0	116	88.4	87
Participants in athletics						
Participating semesters.....	51		99.5		80.8	
Nonparticipating semesters....	27		101.0		81.3	

In the group of high intelligence the same qualities of work prevailed during semesters in which they were active and semesters in which they were not active.

Following the same line of investigation, Swanson (563, 1924) sought to answer the pertinent question: "During the period when one of two groups of high school students is participating in extra-curriculum activities, which group more nearly maintains a standing in scholarship that accords with native ability?" His results evidenced little or no effect of participation on scholarship. The correla-

tions obtained between mean marks and Army Alpha Test scores are as follows:

Participants during period of participation.....	$.38 \pm .037$
Nonparticipants during last three years.....	$.37 \pm .047$

The correlations between mean marks before participation and after participation were $.73 \pm .019$ for participants, and $.70 \pm .028$ for nonparticipants over the same period of time. Further treatment of the data showed a slight increase for participants in the number of high marks during participation as compared with their marks before participation.

The problem of excessive participation in high school was attacked by a somewhat different method by Millard (402, 1928), who reported the following relationship between scholarship and participation in extra-curriculum activities among 380 students in a six-year high school:

10% of students who earned less than 4 activity points averaged more than 90 in marks.

31.4% of students who earned 4-7 activity points averaged 80 or less in marks.

17.5% of students who earned 8-11 activity points averaged 80 or less in marks.

18.2% of students who earned 12-17 activity points averaged 80 or less in marks.

18.2% of students who earned 12-17 activity points are honor students.

These results support the recommendation that participation may be encouraged in proportion to scholarship, other things such as health, home responsibilities, and the like, being equal. These results, like the preceding, do not justify a general policy of exclusion from all participation because of low scholarship.

In addition to investigations using the mere fact of participation as the basis for grouping, comparisons have also been made in terms of time spent in group activities. The relation between scholarship and participation in certain activities was studied by means of time schedules kept by 135 junior high school students over a period of seven days (282, 1932). The time spent on extra-curriculum activities appeared to have no effect on average scholarship grades. The lowest average scholarship grades, however, were received by (1) students who spent an excessive amount of time in unorganized activities, (2) students who spent an excessive amount of time in work outside of school hours, and (3) students who spent the least amount of time in study outside of school hours.

The largest number of investigations in which specific activities have been studied have been concerned with the relationship between the scholarship of athletes and nonathletes. Jacobsen's review (286, 1931) of seventeen references on this subject published up to and including 1929 has already been mentioned. Although many students and teachers believed that scholarship suffered during athletic participation, the majority of evidence fails to support that supposition. In many high school groups, especially among girls, students engaging in activities equaled or slightly surpassed the nonathletes in scholarship.

The study by Finch (192, 1932) of the relation between athletic participation and achievement illustrates one of the more precise methods used in such investigations. Records of athletic participation were obtained from the school annual and one point assigned to membership on the team in five athletic sports.

Scholastic achievement was measured in honor points, an honor-point average being computed for each individual from quarter marks earned throughout high school.

Intelligence was measured in terms of I.Q.'s based on scores on five group tests administered to each individual at or just prior to the time of high school entrance. The mid-score of the five equated I.Q.'s was taken as the best measure of intelligence.

The product moment zero order coefficients of correlation were as follows:

Extent of participation and honor-point average.....	- .08 ± .05
Extent of participation and I. Q.....	- .21 ± .08
Honor-point average and I. Q.....	+ .53 ± .03

When the effect of intelligence is partialled out, the first order coefficient between participation and honor-point average dropped to .03. No evidence was obtained to show that the high school boys in this group who engaged in any particular sport differed markedly in achievement from boys engaging in any other sport, though there was a slight tendency for boys of highest intelligence to engage least in interschool athletics.

Another attempt to define degrees of activity in athletics was made by Culley (133, 1940). He divided boys into three classes: (1) letter men, (2) athletes who participated in the sport full time but did not compete in enough games to win a letter, and (3) students who did not participate in any interscholastic sport. The evidence obtained was in favor of the stimulating effect of engaging in athletics.

In general, participation in extra-curriculum activities does not seem to be associated with low scholarship. It must be remembered,

however, that the figures reported in the investigations reviewed are, for the most part, averages of groups. It would have been especially helpful to personnel workers if individual cases in which poor scholarship was associated with participation in extra-curriculum activities had been studied intensively. Another valuable research would be to compare the achievement of students engaging in extra-curriculum activities to different extents, and holding the intelligence factor constant.

D. HEALTH AND PARTICIPATION IN GROUP ACTIVITIES

Health is a factor which certainly should be considered in advising students concerning group activities. One of the few attempts to study the relationship between health and participation in student activities was reported by Wilkins (626, 1940). The criterion of health was number of days in the college hospital, and the records were as follows:

	Number of days in the Hospital during the College Year
Average for entire student body.....	1.3
Average for group of 58 student officers.....	2.1
Average for group of 149 nonparticipants.....	1.6

Critical ratio of the difference between officer group and nonparticipants is 0.81, indicating that the chances are 79 in 100 that "other officer groups would also have a higher hospitalization record than the non-participants." Variability, however, is great, ranging from 0 to 18 days.

Hospitalization, of course, is not an adequate index of health, nor is it one that we should expect to be closely related to excessive participation in student activities. Indications of chronic fatigue, and minor ailments such as headaches and colds, which are associated and sometimes precipitated by fatigue, would be more valuable factors to study in this connection. In all investigations of participation in extra-curriculum activities the health factor should be taken into consideration. High scholarship may be maintained even when the student spends many hours in informal activities and remunerative work, but at the expense of his optimum of health.

Somewhat broader relationships among academic success as indicated by point-hour ratio; success in relations with other women, as indicated by each student's record of participation in group activities; and success in relations with the other sex, as indicated by number of evening dates for the nine-month school year, were studied

by Janney (289, 1939). These data from 160 college women were supplemented by results on the Pressey Interest-Attitude Test, the Thurstone Attitude Scale on Communism, and ratings on co-operativeness, sagacity, home background, emotional maturity, and sophistication, made by three members of the college faculty and three officers of the student government association. As in other investigations, extra-curriculum activities and scholarship were found to be positively related. A student may be active in student groups and at the same time achieve academic distinction. Dates with men, on the other hand, seem to be "an independent and unique measure of sociality." This measure of achievement was not definitely related to participation in a wide variety of extra-curriculum activities. The studious, intelligent young woman was not excluded from this form of heterosexual endeavor.

E. "SUCCESS IN LIFE" AND PARTICIPATION IN GROUP ACTIVITIES

"Success in life" is a misleading term, for only very limited aspects of success have been studied. In other words, the criteria of "success" have been inadequate. The criteria most frequently employed have been inclusion in *Who's Who* or some similar compilation, salary, and rating by employers or associates. Accordingly, it would be more accurate to describe the specific relationship studied, as "relation of holding office in school organizations" to "being listed in *Who's Who*."

Using inclusion in *Who's Who* as a criterion of success, Thornhill (579, 1928) studied the scholastic achievement and participation in extra-curriculum activities of 184 adults. He found an increase of from 24.6 to 42.7 points in extra-curriculum activities during the ten years between 1900 and 1910. The *Who's Who* group had a higher scholastic grade than the index classes, 2.002 as compared to 2.368. Although the *amount* of extra-curriculum activity was no indication of success as here measured, a tendency toward achievement of success was noted in favor of the campus journalist, dramatist, and scholar, and against the athlete and politician.

Classified according to occupations, the group showed certain differences with respect to participation in student activities while in college. Teachers approximated the average of the *Who's Who* group in extra-curriculum points and in college grades. Ministers likewise were nearer the average, except in campus politics, where they evinced greater interest. Journalists were lowest in scholastic grades, deficient in athletic interest, and outstanding in campus journalism. Lawyers were higher than the average in participation

in extra-curriculum activities; and executives near the median in the activities but highest in scholastic marks.

When salary was used as a criterion of success, similarly inconclusive results were obtained, and lack of agreement found among investigators. In the Bell Telephone system (57, 1930), the 452 college graduates having a record of "substantial achievement" in extra-curriculum activities were earning, twenty-five years after graduation, an average salary of 20 per cent above that for the entire group. The 801 students with a record of "some achievement" were almost 10 per cent above the median, and the 855 with no achievement were almost 10 per cent below the median salary of the entire group. The earning of college expenses had little relationship to salary earned. In this investigation by Bridgman "scholarship appeared to be the most significant single index of success" (57:1, 1930).

The most extensive study of the relation between vocational success, as measured primarily by average annual income earned over five-year periods, and participation in college athletics to the extent of winning a letter in one of the major sports, was reported by Thisted (575, 1934). The data for the study were collected from 324 athletes who had been at the University of Iowa between the years 1905 and 1925. Unfortunately, questionnaires were returned by only about half of those to whom they were sent.

Those who had participated to a considerable extent in intercollegiate athletics showed no evidence of having been handicapped by such participation. In every measure of success obtained, the athletes and active graduates showed a definite superiority over alumni who had not participated in college activities. In retrospect, those who had participated in athletics during college years believed such participation to have been beneficial. Results must be interpreted with the possible selective factor due to unreturned questionnaires in mind.

Other investigations have been made of the relationship of participation in student activities and social events in high school and college to success in the teaching profession, as indicated by the type of position, the size of community in which he obtains appointment, salary, and rating by supervisory officers. A follow-up of seventy-six graduates of Colorado State Teachers College (500, 1930) showed a tendency for the students who had engaged in extra-curriculum activities to secure more important positions and enter into the more advanced types of teaching; to go to larger cities and towns; to receive higher salaries; to show greater interest in advanced education; and to be rated higher in teaching proficiency. The detailed figures supporting this conclusion are as follows:

Type of work in the profession (76 cases)

57.2% of the activity group had positions in advance of the grade school type.

52.8% of the nonactivity group had positions of the same type.

14.3 of the activity group had college or normal positions.

None of the nonactivity group had college or normal positions (greater interest in advanced work and further training).

11.9% of the activity group and none of the nonactivity group enrolled elsewhere for advanced training prior to 1924.

Size of community in which employed (72 cases)

6.4% more of the activity group went into cities of over 10,000 population.

15.5% more of the activity group went to cities of over 2,000 population.

15% fewer went to towns of less than 2,000 population.

Salary (64 cases)

Average salary of the activity group \$1,965.

Average salary of the nonactivity group \$1,693.

Estimated ability in the profession (69 cases)

73.8% of the activity group ranked as superior.

42.3% of the nonactivity group ranked as superior (500 :35-36, 1930).

Although the conclusions apply only to the group studied, they represent a unique attempt to study relationships between participation in student activities and teaching success.

In an investigation using as subjects 407 teachers of adults (537, 1935) participation was defined as "having held official position in extra-curriculum activities some time during their school career." Success was appraised by means of ratings by superintendents on a five-point scale in each subject taught. The reliability of these ratings was lowered by the tendency on the part of superintendents to rate teachers high in general. Of the women, 80 per cent of those having held positions in school organizations were rated above average as against only 59 per cent of the nonparticipants. No differences in ratings were found in the case of the men teachers.

Among 240 Wesleyan alumni (329, 1931) a tendency for students whose scholarship in college was high and who were also successful in extra-curriculum activities to be rated high in vocational success by their classmates was reported.

Brandenburg (54, 1930) found that 80 per cent of a group of 232 distinguished alumni of Purdue University had belonged to honor societies, achieved athletic honors, or were prominent in literary pursuits. Only about one-fifth had not achieved distinction.

The relation of participation in group activities in high school and college to a happy marriage is a subject worthy of considerable study. Using Terman's Prediction Scale for Marital Happiness (which is a sort of vocational interest test confined to the single vocation, marriage), Hoover (273, 1939) found that the 177 senior women in college made significantly lower scores than did Terman's experimental group of happily married women. Participation in extra-curriculum activities, amount of association with boys, ratings on the extent of love interest, and status of engagement do not seem to make for favorable comparison with Terman's key group. Those having had work experience before or during college made the least favorable scores, and those who expressed an equal preference for boys' and girls' companionship, the most favorable scores.

On the Symonds Adjustment Questionnaire and on a score card of personality traits, one hundred basketball letter men in ten Indiana high schools (93, 1940) rated somewhat higher than one hundred nonletter men from the same schools. The possible bias of the persons doing the rating, their opportunities for observing the students, and the adequacy of the scales as measures of personality all influence the results of a comparison of this kind.

Another slant on the problem of scholarship, intelligence, and participation in student activities is obtained from the studies of young gifted college students. Except in individual cases, there is no clear evidence that academically accelerated students are handicapped socially by entering high school and college at an early age. Their records of participation in parties, dances, theaters, and movies, and other social activities connected or not connected with school, on the average, show no statistically significant differences between the young accelerated and the older non-accelerated students. The accelerated college women in one investigation (574, 1938) reported attending more parties, dances, and meetings not connected with school than did the freshmen two years older. Even some accelerated students who believed they were socially handicapped by entering college at an early age seemed to be as active socially as the accelerated students who recognized no handicap. Studies of excessively accelerated students, however, indicate considerable social maladjustment.

Investigations in this area, dealing with participation in extra-curriculum activities while in school, and certain indications of success in life are necessarily limited. In addition to the sources of inaccuracy already mentioned in connection with other studies of relationship, these investigations also involve the special difficulty of

obtaining an accurate and appropriate criterion of success. Obviously athletic activities are less closely related than journalistic activities to the kind of success represented by an inclusion in *Who's Who*. Differences in students' ability and the amount of time they devote to various activities are not taken into consideration. Even the differences in quantity and quality of participation between a member and an officer of an organization are often not adequately recognized. The general impression obtained from these investigations is that of a small, positive relationship between participation in school organizations and the various criteria of success. Many individual deviations, however, may be expected.

F. CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENT LEADERS

Leadership in student activities represents a high degree of participation. Although other degrees of participation have received little attention, students in positions of leadership have been extensively studied. The problems and difficulties already mentioned in connection with research on relationships are encountered in the study of student leadership.

I. DEFINITION AND CLASSIFICATION OF LEADERSHIP

The definition of the term presents especial difficulty. It may be defined in terms of its objective, or its processes, or both. The majority of definitions include the factors of a desirable goal and ability on the part of the leader to encourage progression toward the goal and to change attitudes and conduct which will lead to the attainment of the goal. These factors are admirably incorporated in a definition by Tead:

Leadership is known by the personalities it enriches, not by those it dominates or captivates. Leadership is not a process of exploitation of others for extraneous ends. It is a process of helping others to discover themselves in the achieving of aims which have become intrinsic to them. The proof of leading is in the qualitative growth of the led as individuals and as group members (567:81, 1935).

According to Tead, the study of leadership is as important for followers as for leaders. Every member of a group needs insight into ways of recognizing and resisting the influence of unscrupulous leaders and of co-operating fully and intelligently with worthy leaders. Moreover, in a democratic group, each member at times assumes a position of leadership, thus breaking down the rigid distinction we have set up between leaders and nonleaders.

The study of leadership becomes still more complicated by the fact that leadership is a phenomenon operating under specific conditions. Both the process and the end result vary with the interaction of the leader's personality and the particular conditions in which he is placed (468, 1940; 622, 1936). If the leader is lucky, he will get into a situation which demands the leadership qualities he possesses. If he is unfortunate, the reverse will be true. For this reason leadership "traits" should not be discussed in general but only as they appear in particular situations. The proper approach to the study of leadership is as an expression of the group rather than of the individuals. For example, leaders among the cadets at West Point (437, 1935) have different characteristics from those of high school students in positions of leadership.

Bogardus (44, 1934) has analyzed in detail types of leaders: the direct leader who influences people by his words and his personality; the indirect leader who sets in motion forces that sooner or later change the course of human events; the partisan leader who is biased in favor of some person or thing; the scientific leader who worships truth and is more interested in promulgating principles than in carrying out details of plans; the social leader who is a master hand at arousing enthusiasm in a group; the mental leader who produces ideas in seclusion; the executive leader who implements new ideas; the autocratic leader who influences by domination; the democratic leader who gets results by integration; the paternalistic leader who fosters dependency, though sincerely concerned with the welfare of the group; the prophet who represents inspired authority; the saint who rules through love and self-sacrifice; and the expert who has more knowledge and skill than his followers and wants them to recognize his superior ability.

Nafe (417, 1930) distinguished between two kinds of leadership: one which is in response to the force which starts a movement and the other which directs the movement after it is initiated. Some leaders impress the group; other express the group.

Bartlett (29, 1926) described three types of leaders: (1) the leader whose authority is derived from the social prestige attaching to his position, (2) the leader who has attained his position through the personal capacity to impress and dominate his followers, and (3) the leader who has attained his influence through the personal capacity to persuade his followers and to implement their ideas. The second type of leader needs to possess the capacity for swift decision and practical ability. The third type must know what people are thinking and feeling and doing and to be able to divine what they

are going to feel and think and do. Bartlett recognized mixed types also.

The experimental approach to the analysis of leadership yields a somewhat different kind of classification. Using the method of factor analysis with seventy-one high school girls, Flemming (197, 1935) isolated four types of leadership ability—the entertaining, the brilliant, the cultured-talented, the just—and eight qualities thought to be basic to leadership in high school activities—wide interests, liveliness, intelligence, good sportsmanship, ability to amuse, athletic prowess, a pleasant voice, and absence of modesty.

In spite of the complexity of the problem, interest in the development of leadership is keen. This interest is evidenced, in part, by a bibliography (533, 1933) of 121 items published in 1933. Since that time many more significant books and articles on the subject have been printed. Many of these represent the statistical approach. There is, however, a dearth of qualitative studies of leadership aiming to describe the leader as a whole functioning in a particular situation.

2. LEADERSHIP IN HIGH SCHOOL

Many aspects of leadership in high school have been studied. One early investigation (85, 1926) supports the more recent statement by sociologists that leadership qualities are related to time and place. The characteristics of the junior high school boys and girls chosen by their classmates as representatives in various lines of school activity varied with the type of activity. For example, high physical achievement was a prominent characteristic of athletic leaders, but not for other types of leaders. All leaders were relatively high in scholarship, the officers of the student council, the magazine staff, and the science club (girls) being exceptionally high.

Levi (338, 1930) likewise found that leaders maintained a high level of scholarship even when they were carrying heavy responsibility. Possibly one of the characteristics of student leaders is to recognize their saturation point of energy and adjust their activity load accordingly. These leaders did not, to any marked degree, take private lessons or work for pay. The carry-over of leadership responsibility in school activities from junior high school to senior high school was represented by a correlation of .515. Such carry-over was greatest in the case of athletic leadership and least in civic-social and scientific-manual types of leadership.

The problem of persistence of leadership qualities was more recently studied by Courtenay (125, 1938), who concluded that

the leadership evidenced in early years has a definite tendency to persist; that the qualities which made the members of the leader group outstanding figures in the high-school world continued to make them prominent on the college campus and active in the stimulation and the direction of community affairs (125:106, 1938).

Chapin (97, 1931) advanced the hypothesis that leaders are persons of greater activity than the average so their range of elasticity for participation is greater than the average person. He also suggested that leaders have greater power of symbolic thought than the masses and hence are able to visualize by means of symbols the complex interrelations of groups. Be that as it may, student leaders tend to express preferences for occupations in which verbal and linguistic activities are fundamental.

This hypothesis has been supported by a number of studies of high school leaders. Finch and Carroll (193, 1932) reported that of 211 high school students the gifted group (I.Q. of 130 or over) held 42 per cent of the total leadership points; the superior (I.Q., 115-120), 36 per cent; and the average (I.Q., 95-105), 22 per cent.

A more extensive and significant study of qualities of 259 students in positions of leadership in a particular school was made by Brown (68, 1933) in 1932. Since leadership may be thought of as a continuum ranging from the most important positions of leadership to the leadership of a group of two or three persons, comparisons were made between groups of different degrees of leadership rather than a comparison of "leaders" with "non-leaders."

The leaders in the more prominent positions were, on the average, superior to those in minor positions in the following respects: posture and general appearance, intelligence, and scholarship. They were also younger. There seemed to be a selective process by which students tended to choose their more gifted classmates with more diversified experiences, both in and out of school, for the most important positions.

The entire group of leaders were younger than their classmates and exceeded the average of the school as a whole in intelligence and scholarship. They came from homes of a relatively high occupational status, chiefly from the business and professional ranks. For the most part, the leaders elected and preferred college preparatory subjects and expected to enter business and professional work. Their hobbies and choice of subjects exceeded the unselected group in range and variety. Individual case studies, however, revealed a wide range of abilities, interests, and backgrounds within the group of leaders. None of the students attained positions of leadership suddenly; all

had had certain patterns of experience leading up to the highest positions.

Results obtained in some other high schools show less difference between the groups studied. This variation in results may be due to the quality of the group-work program in the high school, to local traditions and cultural influences, to the definition of "leader," to methods of collecting data, and to other factors. When the degree of leadership is controlled, the relationship between wide and varied leadership and intelligence, scholarship, and socio-economic status becomes evident.

Bellingrath (33, 1930), for example, compared a group of 120 high school seniors in positions of leadership with the same number of seniors not elected to leadership. He found the two groups of boys alike in physical measurements, school marks, and on a scale of introversion-extroversion. The greatest differences were in respect to age and home background. The only attitude possessed to a greater extent among elected leaders was ambition to continue their education. More marked differences were found between the leaders and nonleaders in the case of girls. The leaders were taller, heavier, obtained higher school marks, had better school habits, and came from better homes.

Another group of subjects was studied by Partridge (444, 1934), who made a different approach to the problem. He found that outstanding leaders among Boy Scouts excelled their fellows in every characteristic measured—intelligence, athletic ability, Scout rank, Scout tenure, and physical size. The boys themselves rated traits of leaders in the following order of importance: (1) intelligence, (2) dependability, (3) appearance, (4) athletic ability.

Although these boys were identified as leaders even by groups that did not know them, the leaders did not conform to any definite type of individual. In other words, there was no typical leader. They differed greatly in each of the separate characteristics in which, as a group, they were above average. On the basis of his study of the characteristics of leaders, Partridge developed a rating scheme called the "Five-man-to-man" rating scale by which boy leaders were identified.

Recognizing the interrelation of sex, age, scholarship, intelligence, curriculum chosen, and leadership in high school, Reals (471, 1938) paired thirty-seven outstanding leaders with an equal number of non-leaders. The leaders were selected by the principal and two students on the basis of personality and influence and were thus distinguished from mere holders of position. This method of selection, while ad-

mirable in some respects, introduced a subjective element which undoubtedly affected the final comparison between the two groups. As one would expect, under such conditions, the leaders were superior in general appearance, health, and experiences of a broadening type, including participation in student activities. Their family background was superior in many respects—better educated and more socially inclined parents, a larger number of prominent and successful relatives, and high home and neighborhood rating. In the leader group "only" children predominated.

Remmlein (480, 1938) made a different distinction between office holding and leadership. Any of the 587 students (75 per cent of those studied) who had held at least one office during the four years of high school were considered to be office holders, but only those who had held many and varied types of offices were designated as "leaders." A significant increase in intelligence, scholarship, socio-economic status, and dominance paralleled an increase in the extent of office holding. Students who have held many and important offices were found to be significantly more intelligent, higher in scholarship grades and socio-economic status, and more dominant than students who had not held offices in organized groups. Versatility, manifested by the frequency with which they hold offices in several fields, is another characteristic of the leaders.

Although there are individual differences in high school leaders, investigations indicate that students of better than average scholarship appear to be attracted to positions of leadership. The leaders also tended to be slightly superior in health, intelligence, and socio-economic status. We must recognize the fact, however, that these generalizations do not apply to all schools or to all leaders in a particular school.

3. LEADERSHIP IN COLLEGE

Similar conditions with respect to leadership prevail in college. Individual differences, as well as a tendency for college students to choose leaders whose intelligence is slightly above the average of the group, is shown in the following figures based on a study of fifty-eight leaders and 1374 students in a large university (364, 1929), for whom scores on the Thorndike intelligence test were obtained:

35	group	leaders—intelligence	scores	above	average	for	group
21	"	"	—	"	"	below	"
2	"	"	—	"	"	same as	"
1	group	leader—lowest	score	in	group		
1	"	"	—highest	score	in	group	

A comparison of fifty-eight students in positions of leadership on the Oberlin campus (626, 1940) in scores on the College Aptitude tests was likewise in favor of the officer group—56.9 as compared to an average of 50 for the entire student body. The difference is 6.9 points and the critical ratio 1.70, indicating that "the chances are 96 in 100 that this is a true difference." The average score for the 149 nonparticipants was 49.6, almost the same as the average for the student body as a whole.

In scholarship also the student leader compares favorably with the student body as a whole. One recent example is fairly typical of this type of study. At Oberlin College (626, 1940), during the year 1937-38, the following relationship between curricular grades and participation in extra-curriculum activities was found to exist:

Average Grades

I. Average grade of all college students.....	76.70
II. Average grade of students with 3 or 2 "o ratings"	80.02
III. Average grade of all nonparticipants	75.86

(An o rating indicates officership or committee chairmanship.) (626: 654, 1940)

It will be noted that the officer group had a grade average 4.16 points higher than that of the nonparticipating students. "The critical ratio of this difference is 4.31, which provides a basis for a confident judgment that a difference greater than zero would always be found in favor of the officer group" (626:655, 1940). Low marks were notably absent in this group of leaders. Moreover, all but one of the eight officers holding responsible positions of leadership in their senior year made a definitely better scholastic record than they did the two previous years.

In an early investigation by Bowden (50, 1926) and a later article by Morris (415, 1930) steps toward a more comprehensive study of leaders were taken. Bowden drew profiles of individual leaders which emphasized the uniqueness of each leader's personality. Morris suggested a composite measure which included such characteristics as tactfulness in comment and action, "social feelings," insight, and social judgment. Thus far personality trends which theoretically seem most significant in leadership are vividness, social finesse, inscrutability, sympathy, imagination, and adroitness.

It may be that natural leaders who attain positions of influence, voluntarily accorded them by their fellows, develop techniques of leadership early. Studies of preschool and of kindergarten children reveal different patterns and different methods of dominance. For example, Hanfmann (238, 1935) found among kindergarten children a *social leader* who occupied a position of leadership without

"dominating" his companions. This child accepted others as they were, increased understanding between himself and others, and made others feel secure in his presence.

In none of these investigations can specific characteristics be considered a function of leadership; they may equally well be a function of age, higher class position, and other factors which have not been kept constant in the various groups studied. It should also be remembered that many of the results may be a natural outcome of the social situation or of administrative manipulation in the particular school or group of schools studied.

4. EDUCATION OF LEADERS

A number of plans for increasing the student leader's understanding of his duties and responsibilities have been described. Among these are courses dealing with leadership problems, progression in experience in positions of leadership preferably with supervision, observation and study of organized and unorganized groups, and systematic personal conferences with an adult adviser. Of these methods, the leadership course or seminar is the only one on which published material is available.

At the University of Wisconsin the education of student leaders is considered of sufficient importance to be undertaken in courses in group-work theory and group-work practice. In these courses problems involved and techniques to be used in group leadership are discussed and put into actual practice in university groups. "These student leaders help to provide the critical evaluation of the going program, working as they do with the perspective of 'participant observers'" (265:404, 1939).

At the University of Oregon (430, 1936) a somewhat similar course was offered to house presidents and any other men and women holding responsible student offices. The content of the course included reports, lectures and discussion of specific techniques of leadership, psychological and sociological aspects of group leadership, and aids and agencies available in the university for the use of leaders. Another course for scholarship chairmen emphasized the psychology of the college students and techniques of educational guidance. These courses were considered valuable in effecting closer co-operation between students and faculty, as well as in increasing the skill of student leaders.

At the University of Pittsburgh (9, 1937) the leaders' institute, directed by the Women's Self-Government Association, has been an important factor in the unification of the extra-curriculum. During

a three-week period such topics as "The Extra-Curriculum and the Personnel Point of View," "Place and Worth of the Extra-Curriculum in College Life," "Analysis of Leadership," "Methods of Improving Programs," "Making and Using Records and Reports," and "Group Living" are discussed. In addition to these topics, specific training for each type of office is offered.

Classes in leadership in high school have already been briefly described on pages 163-164. Some (620, 1938) deal with general problems of school welfare, while others (142, 1935) get down to specific techniques of how to conduct a discussion and to co-operate with teachers. If the course is developed jointly by faculty and students, it may have beneficial effects in increasing the dignity and prestige of school offices and in giving students confidence in their ability to meet the requirements of the office successfully. With such preparation satisfaction, not annoyance, is likely to result from their experiences in leadership.

G. CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

In the framework of the traditional school and college, investigations have shown that, in general, the slightly more intelligent student tends to be active in the group-work program. This tendency may be due to a number of factors. Having good mental ability, such a student is not likely to be debarred from membership because of poor scholarship. Finding the traditional curriculum unstimulating, he uses the extra-curriculum as an outlet for excess energy. Being well developed physically and socially, he is sought by others to join the organized groups of the school. This general superiority is slightly more marked in the case of students in positions of leadership.

Investigations have also shown that membership and especially leadership in informal group activities are associated with superior scholarship rather than with low scholarship. Moreover, the student who engages in group activities tends to realize his intellectual potentialities more fully than does the nonparticipant. Thus one might infer that association in groups may serve as an incentive to study rather than a deterrent.

With respect to certain aspects of success in life, participation in group activities in school or college likewise tends to be positively related. In the few investigations reported in this area there was no evidence that the unsocial bookworm is more likely to gain recognition in *Who's Who*, or obtain a higher salary later in life, or be rated higher as a teacher than his classmate who devoted some of his time to the informal group activities of school or college.

Although these generalizations, based on the conclusions of the various investigators, seem to be justified, we must remember that they do not apply to all individuals or to all situations. One factor, such as a heavy load of remunerative work, or poor health, will alter the relation in an individual case, while factors such as quality of leadership in the group activity program, policies with respect to membership, academic standards, educational philosophy, and methods of the school will reverse the relationship in an individual institution. Moreover, individuals possess different degrees of leadership ability, adequate for some situations, but not for others.

We must guard against the danger of making positive statements about relationships which have practically no foundation in fact. Insofar as such statements are considered as tentative hypotheses, their inclusion in this review of research seems justified. Equal caution should be exercised in passing from specific facts to generalizations. In view of the fact that the authors rarely report adequately on the statistical significance of differences obtained, the reader will be safer if he assumes that the conclusions drawn apply to the particular group or groups studied and not the general population of which the group is a sample. As one reads many of these inconclusive investigations, he cannot but wish that the time and energy devoted to them had been pooled to produce one thoroughly controlled, intensive research.

H. RESEARCH NEEDED

The most obvious need is for research that will answer the questions "Why?" and "How?" Granted that the relationships described exist, the personnel worker wants to know the reasons for them. He seeks the answers to such questions as: Is participation in group activities equally stimulating to students of different levels of mental ability? At what point does participation become "excessive"? How does a challenging curriculum and informal class discussion affect students' participation in the extra-curriculum? Does participation in extra-curriculum activities affect the student's scholarship favorably or unfavorably? Answers to such questions can only be made by a combination of longitudinal and individual studies. These would involve case studies of individuals for whom adequate records of achievement were available, and a continuous study of these individuals during periods in which they engaged in a specified number of extra-curriculum activities and in fewer activities or none. The methods of collecting data would include both systematic observation of changes in the students' behavior and introspective reports.

Trends could be studied by repeating a carefully planned investigation such as Crawford's (129, 1928) ten or twenty years later. It would be interesting to know whether the same relationships persist in the case of Yale students and, if not, what changes in the student body or in policy might account for the changes in relationship.

The role of members of a group should also be studied. Research is needed to answer questions concerning the shifting role of leader and follower in mature and democratic groups and the extent to which the follower stimulates the leader to direct his attention to certain aspects of the problem under consideration.

Groups in educational institutions, both curricular and extra-curriculum, should be subjected to analysis over a period of years. During that time a wealth of information about influences which touch the members could be collected. From such data insight into the nature of social adjustment in different groups could be obtained.¹ Some of the conclusions reached by Whitehead (622a, 1938) concerning a group of industrial workers could be tested with respect to groups in educational institutions: Do members of high school and college groups react to their understanding of the situation as a whole rather than to limited aspects of it? Is the situation as a whole significant to the members chiefly in terms of human relationships? Are their attitudes related largely to the things that the members do with each other and with other people? Do they get immediate social satisfactions from doing things together? What unique contribution does each member make to the group? How do the members through their relationships with one another perpetuate the activities of the group? The answers to these and many other questions will show what takes place in the course of group activity, in other words, what is the actual process of learning in the situation.

¹ See Lois Hayden Meek, *The Personal-Social Development of Boys and Girls with Implications for Secondary Education*. New York: Committee on Workshops, Progressive Education Association, 1940.

CHAPTER X

METHODS OF WORK WITH GROUPS

METHODS of work with groups, broadly interpreted, consist in any intelligent means of getting results with classes, clubs, committees, or other groups. The processes involved are somewhat similar to case work procedures. They include a clear recognition of the problem, a critical appraisal of the social and emotional factors involved, the building of rapport, the implementation of plans to bring persons into wholesome contacts with others, and the critical evaluation of group activities.

A few researches on methodology of group work have recently been reported. Procedures for discovering and charting interpersonal relations have been developed; cumulative records of group activities have been kept; general methods of work with groups have been subjected to experimentation; and specific techniques of group work have been described and analyzed.

One technique of work with groups, and with individuals as well, transcends all others in importance. This is the technique of freeing members of a group for creative activity. The process of doing this will be somewhat different in every group, depending upon the cultural background and previous experience of the members. Obviously the process will not be the same for a group of Italian boys in New York City, a group of farm lads from Iowa, and sophisticated college students.

Nevertheless, the process will have certain elements in common: Each person will feel free to use the powers he has acquired. He will act with spontaneity, not be acted upon subtly, without his awareness, by the leader. As a result of this frankness and freedom, something may emerge from the group that is superior to anything the leader had conceived. Characteristic of this process is an inquiring mind on the part of the adult—he does not know all the answers, although he may contribute to the group activity from his experience and knowledge. He does not resort to the psychological manipulation of any person in order to attain ends which he has in mind. Rather, he has faith in the ability of each person to be self-directing within certain limitations. This process or technique is still to be de-

veloped. Progress has been made through such experiments as those of Lewin and his associates at Iowa and through research on morale in industry. Such research aims to discover the specific processes that lead to effective self-direction in different groups.

A. DESCRIPTION AND MEASUREMENT OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

Three major approaches to the problem of uncovering interpersonal relations have already been made. The first is the full descriptive account of a group activity; the second is the charting of relations expressed by members of the group; and the third is the attempt to express human relations in quantitative terms or mathematical formulas.

I. DESCRIPTIVE ACCOUNTS OF GROUP ACTIVITY

A descriptive record of the activity of leader and members during a series of meetings makes possible an analysis of the relations of members to one another and to the leader. It also provides a basis for the study of the apparent effect of the group atmosphere and procedures upon individuals. Such records were made and analyzed, and procedures evaluated by Coyle (128, 1937) in her significant study of five clubs. The first study is an account of the activities of "The Gay Girls," a group of girls between eighteen and twenty years of age. The social interaction in this group over a period of three years is described. The second is a study of "youth in adversity," a group of ten to fifteen young men between the ages of twenty and twenty-two years. Observations were made over a period of two years. The "Merry Makers" illustrates the struggle for power, during a year, in a club of thirteen girls between twelve and thirteen years of age. "The Pirates" represent a gang within settlement walls, composed of thirteen members whose ages ranged from fourteen to seventeen years. The last record gives an account of a year's activities in a club of twenty-nine women between the ages of thirty and sixty.

Still more detailed records of what actually goes on in a group have been made for research and instructional purposes at the New York School of Social Work. These stenographic accounts of the interaction in the group make possible analysis of the group-work process and supply information on such questions as: What changes take place in relationships during the group activity? What questions and problems arise? What is going on when interest appeared to be highest? What took place when interest was low?

Relationships in small groups such as those formed at boys' camps may be studied by means of observation and short questionnaires about preferred associates. This method has been described and its sociological implications discussed by Newstetter and Newcomb (422, 1938). One kind of behavior was studied, namely, that having to do with cordiality or antagonism of personal relationships. This behavior was studied with respect to acceptance or rejection by the group. It was found that certain degrees of cordiality and antagonism were not associated with being accepted or rejected. An important contribution to methodology was the conclusion that the best way to study the group adjustment of an individual may be to study how others respond toward him.

The observer may be aided by having his attention directed to the more important social patterns. He needs to know what he is looking for. Three social patterns begin to appear in the majority of children toward the end of the second year of life. These have been described by Bühler (75, 1931), and later by Blatz as

(1) an initiated act on the part of the individual to induce another into the realm of influence; (2) a response on the part of the individual to an initiated act of another individual and (3) maintaining oneself in a social situation without contributing to it, e.g., watching, listening, attending, etc." (41:9, 1939).

These sorts of social behavior occur from early childhood to old age, changing with age and with individuals.

Lewin and his associates (345, 1940) have developed the "total behavior technique," using, as its name implies, a combination of techniques of studying interpersonal relations and personal development of participants in a group activity. All observable information was recorded by three or four persons seated at a table at one end of the room and ignored by the group. These observers wrote an exact account of social interaction among the members of the group and made a group structure analysis and a member activity analysis. Another worker made stenographic records of the conversational interactions of the boys. All records made during a club period by different persons were synchronized by an electric clock which indicated to each observer by audible clicks when he was to move down to the next section of his record.

To these records made by nonparticipant observers were added the leader's impressions of the group activity as a whole. He wrote this account after the club meeting, including his interpretation of special incident which had attracted his attention. By combining data

from the leader's diary with the stenographic reports, a series of "action snapshots" of the group was obtained (345, 76-100, 1940).

By introducing test situations such as the withdrawal of the leader for a ten-minute period, it was possible to compare the responses of the groups under controlled conditions. In all these ways a record of the "total behavior" of the group was obtained.

These observations in the group situation were supplemented by a study of individual members. By means of interviews and questionnaires the attitudes of the boys toward the club atmosphere, toward other members, and toward their home and school were ascertained. With this body of information about the group activities, the members, and the interpersonal relations in the group situation, the group-work process may be subjected to analysis by any number of persons.

Equally significant is the still more recent work of French (210, 1941; 211, 1941) in discovering "some of the determinants of the behavior of interacting individuals in emotional situations." This important experimental approach to crowd psychology consisted in presenting two experimental situations to eight unorganized groups, each composed of six unacquainted Harvard undergraduates, and eight organized groups of the same size. Five of the organized groups were house athletic teams of Harvard; three were clubs from a settlement house in the Italian section of East Boston. The first was "a frustration situation in which they were instructed to solve any one of three insoluble problems." The second was "a fear situation produced by suffusing the locked experimental room with thick, acrid woodsmoke, giving the appearance of a fire." The "total behavior approach," essentially the same as that already described in the Lewin experiment, was used to collect data on the reactions of the groups under these conditions. Two improvements in technique were the observation through one-way vision screens and phonograph recording.

Group differences were found to be larger in the emotional behavior than in the achievement aspects of problem solving. Members of these groups responded to frustration in various ways:

(1) aggression against others; (2) aggression against the problems; (3) displaced aggression; (4) self-aggression; (5) escape from the field; (6) expressions of frustration such as swearing, groaning, physical tension, etc.; (7) other results such as cheating, lowering of the level of aspiration, disorganization of the activity of the group, increased organization and cooperation, increased motivation, decreased motivation, decreased social restraint, the development of factions, etc. (210: 1941).

Group differences were larger than individual differences.

The observable "atmosphere" of a group tended to produce similar behavior in all members of the same group. In an aggressive atmosphere, for example, there was a tendency for all members to behave aggressively. An analogous tendency was present in a friendly, encouraging atmosphere, and in a fearful atmosphere (210: 1941).

The organized groups "showed definitely *more* social freedom, we-feeling, motivation, frustration, interdependence, aggression against others, equality of participation of the members in the group activity, and more definite initial leadership" than the unorganized groups. Within the organized groups, the Italian groups showed a higher degree of motivation, interdependence, frustration, and aggression than the organized Harvard groups. They were also "more restrained before the observers and much less restrained among themselves." An increase in social freedom tended to increase both cooperation and aggression expressed against others.

"The amount of motivation is dependent on the instructions, the intrinsic interest of the problems, and the existence of group goals. It increases with increasing interdependence and we-feeling" and, if sufficiently strong, with increasing frustration. This frustration usually, but not always, leads to aggression. "If aggression toward others is inhibited, there is a tendency for other responses to frustration (e.g., escape from the field) to increase and for subsequent aggression to increase when the inhibition is released."

In the fear situation the organized groups were more frightened than the unorganized. The explanation of this difference seems to lie in "(a) greater communication and interdependence of members, (b) less criticalness, (c) more psychological naivety, (d) greater previous frustration, and (e) less verbalization of the suspicion of a hoax and more immediate action."

This experimental work, quoted in detail from the abstract of the thesis, gives insight into the nature of group behavior. It is significant that the very advantage of an organized group—greater intercommunication among members—may increase panic and overt expressions of aggression. The reaction of groups apparently depends a great deal upon the individuals who are quickest and most forceful in expressing their reaction to the situation. It is therefore most significant, in work with groups, to be aware of the influence of those members who initially express their point of view.

Further understanding of the group-work process and the interpersonal relations involved is gained through a genetic approach.

In order to improve the quality of student life on the campus, the personnel worker should understand how group phases of student life have developed in a number of representative institutions. Price (463, 1941) made such a study of the processes of student life on two campuses, Stephens College and Stanford University. She traced the course of student activities in Stephens College over a period of twenty-five years and at Stanford since its founding in 1892. At Stephens extensive use was made of thinking in groups and of functional research which resulted in the remaking of the curriculum. At Stanford University, administrative policy and student traditions played a large part in the development of social control.

Most valuable for personnel workers is the detailed description of techniques used in work with the faculty; verbatim records of discussions among students, teachers, and administrators which effected changes in student life; and accounts of specific methods used to ascertain the social needs of students. Through investigations of this kind teachers, administrators, special personnel workers, and the students themselves will gain insight into the processes by which group activities develop and are modified.

Through observation alone the apparent structure of relationships among members may be ascertained. But the fundamental feelings of attraction, repulsion, or indifference among members toward one another may not be uncovered by this method. Accordingly, another approach is necessary to supplement observation and to check on whether the structure manifested in overt behavior is the authentic feeling structure. Such an approach has been developed and designated as *sociometry*, or the *sociometric technique*.

2. SOCIOMETRY

This is a method devised for the discovery of social configurations by ascertaining the feelings of attraction, repulsion, and indifference among individuals in a group. As developments in methodology in this area have to date been more significant than the findings, the essential sociometric processes will be described in some detail.

a. The sociometric test.—The sociometric test "requires that each individual choose or reject his associates upon the basis of a specific criterion determined by the nature of the group being tested. The choices are made upon preference levels—first choice, second choice, third choice, etc." (205:76, 1939). The following specific criteria have already been used in various investigations:

(1) With whom would you like to live in the same house? (2) With whom would you like to work? (3) With whom would you like to sit at

the same table? (4) With whom do you wish to sit in the classroom? (5) Who are your best friends in the village? (6) Whom do you wish to have as neighbor in a new community? (7) With whom would you like to work on the same committee? (8) With which families in the community do you have visiting relations? Exchange work? Borrow tools? (205:77, 1939).

In order to obtain the actual wished-for relationships of the subject, the investigator must convince him that his answers will be put into immediate operation. For example, the answers to the first three questions were used in grouping girls at the New York Training School for Girls at Hudson, New York. Thus the test, involving or promising realization of a desire, becomes a value, or incentive, for the subject, who is motivated to release valid information about social configurations (413:13-14, 1934).

On the periphery of the closely knit constellation of attraction-repulsion relations is the larger structure of acquaintance relations. The number of acquaintances is ascertained by asking each subject to indicate the number of persons with whom he is familiar but who are not chosen on the basis of any specific criterion, such as working or living in proximity (413:137-41, 1934).

A group membership record (648, 1940) is a form of sociometric test which, as judged by a limited application in three college classes, appears to have high reliability, retest correlations being .935 to .967. The record is simple, asking merely for the subject's name, group, and date, and his choices from 1 to 5 on the list of all the members of the class with whom he would like to be associated in a class discussion group. In addition, the subject was asked to respond to each member of the class separately, indicating by "yes" those whom he would like to have in his discussion group; by "no" those whom he would not like to have; by "I" those to whom he felt indifferent. If he did not know certain persons on the list, he was to draw a line through their names. This one experiment with college seniors is suggestive for further work.

Another modification of the original sociometric technique is along the lines of weighing the intensity of choice or preference (414, 1940). Instead of asking the subject to make first, second, and third choices, he is asked "to name as many persons as he wishes, on the same preference level, if he feels equally strongly attracted to them" (414:65, 1940).

Another ingenuous modification suggested is on a time basis. The subject is given three hours on a given day for visiting friends or receiving them. He is to indicate quantitatively how he would like

to spend this time. He may give an hour and a half to one friend, ten minutes to another, and no time to others who might be available. He might even prefer to spend the entire time in solitary pursuits. Thus the importance of each person to the subject is quantitatively expressed.

The measurement of intensity of relation, however, cannot be attacked from a merely quantitative angle. Jennings (292, unpublished study) later suggested that intensity of choice is intrinsically related to the meaning a specific choice has for the chooser. In other words, intensity is determined by an analysis of the rôle the choice plays within the group structure as a whole. Accordingly, Jennings studied the motivations of the chooser, the reciprocal behavior of the chooser and the chosen, and the effect of the choice on the chooser's total constellation of interrelations over a period of eight months. If the choices are "essential," they are not readily replaceable and, further, their loss apparently results in "reverberations" affecting the whole constellation of the individual's relationships to others. The evidence obtained by Jennings suggests that the degree of intensity of choice is related to the extent to which the individual's satisfactions in particular choices are dependent upon the choices being reciprocated by the person chosen, and also to the extent to which the individual shows himself to be dependent upon the satisfactions coming to him from such reciprocation. Evidently the study of intensity of relations must include qualitative aspects and reference to the whole structure of interpersonal relations in which an individual is enmeshed.

The validity of the sociometric test depends largely on how seriously the subjects make these paper and pencil estimates and how accurately they represent their true feelings. When the tests are applied in specific situations such as a discussion group and a dining hall where the responses are actually incorporated into the group activity, there is the strongest incentive for filling in the blanks with care.

b. The sociogram.—The results of the sociometric test may be represented by a *sociogram* which gives a picture of the organization of a group and the relations of members to one another. If the same group is studied periodically by the sociometric technique, the evolution of group relations may be graphically described. The sociogram is made by representing each person by a symbol and drawing lines indicating attraction and repulsion between them. The sociograms published in issues of *Sociometry* illustrate a variety of typical structures. Some individuals are the center of attraction; others are

connected in *pairs*; still others in *triangles*, *stars*, and *chains*. A few are *isolates*, being neither sought or even disliked by anyone.

c. **Examples of sociometric research.**—The sociometric technique has been applied in the study of group structure in public schools, private schools, church groups, institutions of higher learning, rural and urban communities, hospitals for mental disorders, prisons, training schools, and camps. Among the problems studied are persistence of choice, individual differences, characteristics of persons chosen or rejected by others, and methods of altering the interpersonal relations within a group. Several of the more important researches will be summarized in detail.

The first experiment¹ exploring individual differences in choice and rejection among members of a community for associating with one another in group activities was undertaken by Helen Jennings (291, 1939). The method of procedure devised for the research "allowed unlimited variations of response in order to make room for every individual to vary in whatever ways may be characteristic for him. The full expression of the subject towards others was formulated by the subject wholly as he might wish to formulate it" (291:94, 1939). No specific number of choices was asked for and no specific preference levels were suggested. The subject might choose *and reject* any number of individuals on the same or many different levels of preference or rejection. The experiment was repeated in the same community eight months later in order to study the individual's interrelations at two points of time. The community tested was the New York State Training School for Girls, comprising a population of 443 individuals at the time of Test I and 457 at the time of Test II.

The individual's extent of emotional expansiveness, as measured by the number of other persons for whom he expresses positive choice for associating, was found to vary at the two points of time, but to vary only *within* a relatively narrow range (usually not more than three more or two less persons than he had chosen on the first test), the range being characteristic for the given individual and constituting his "repertoire" of expansiveness. Regardless of the changes undergone in the extent of choices expressed for the individual on the two occasions, the individual maintained his "repertoire," unaffected apparently by whether he becomes much chosen and little rejected or much rejected and little chosen by the time of Test II. Jennings interpreted this finding as suggesting that the

¹ The author is indebted to Helen Jennings for this summary of what she considered significant points in her research.

individual's reaction to others is the expression of a need which is so "central" to the personality of the individual that he seeks to fulfill it whether or not the situation in which he finds himself invites or rebuffs choice from him.

The length of time individuals are associated together in group activities showed no correlation with the extent to which they either chose or rejected one another. The individual who is relatively more or relatively less expansive towards others will react to them independently of the length of time he is in association with them.

Of major importance to group work is the finding that rejections expressed towards an individual as well as choices expressed towards him accompany growth in integration into the structure of the group. Almost every individual who was an active and constructive participant in the group was the recipient of some rejections as well as choices. While the proportion of rejections in such cases was relatively low, it is significant that apparently any individual who makes a constructive, active contribution to the functioning of the group will almost inevitably meet with opposition resulting in some rejections. The phenomenon of an individual who is chosen by many and rejected by no one is apparently rare, and, in the test-community, was very rare. On the other hand, the individual who plays a passive rôle may be rejected by few and chosen by few, unless he is passive to the extent of interfering with activities requiring his participation. In the latter case, he may be rejected by many. Almost universally both choice and rejection enter into interpersonal relations and cannot legitimately be separated without distorting the picture of the rôle of the individual's interrelations to other persons and of other persons to him.

The "adjustment" and the "psychological status" an individual has within a community, and the "choice-status" others accord him, must be estimated on the basis of the proportion of positive to negative reactions to him. To be rejected to some extent appears as a healthy sign, so long as the proportion of positive to negative choices is small. The presence of some rejections is an indication that the person is asserting himself and assuming responsibilities as a member of the group. Lack of rejections in the case of one individual may be due to the fact that he seldom or never takes a definite stand in matters affecting the group. In the case of another person, lack of rejections may be referable to his skill in dealing with people, arousing no antagonism despite his definite and forceful stand. No particular degree of reciprocation appears to be necessary to a par-

ticular individual. Rather, what is "normal" for *him* must be considered.

It is only through the study of how these interpersonal relations are associated with one or more factors such as happiness, vocational success, and disciplinary status that the significance of the descriptions obtained from sociometric techniques can be ascertained.

Soderquist (538, 1937) found that, where normal conditions of mutual acquaintanceship exist, junior and senior high school pupils tended to agree with one another highly in estimating the sociability, friendliness, leadership, and pep of an individual. Sociability and friendliness rating correlated very closely. Leadership correlated more closely with the M.A., I.Q., and scholarship ratings than did the other ratings. Scholarship seemed to play a larger part in leadership estimates than in the sociability estimates. The pupil who lives in the country is more likely to be rated below the level of the group in sociability than is the pupil living in town.

Criswell (130, 1939; 131, 1939), using a seating criterion, applied the sociometric test and interview to New York public school classes composed of Negro and white children.² She developed a statistical method for the measurement of cleavage in groups of different size and racial composition. Cleavage was considered to be present when one racial group significantly preferred itself to the other race; likewise when both races preferred themselves to each other.

Sex cleavage was deeper than racial cleavage in the classes studied (kindergarten through eighth grade). Thus, whereas the classes characteristically broke into almost separate sex groups, they exhibited a less distinct racial cleavage.

Though little overt race friction appeared in the school behavior of these children, cleavage was detected by the sociometric test even in kindergarten. Throughout the grades certain exceptional members of one race could be received as cordially by the other race as if they were members of that group. But as age increased, there was a reduction in the number of such intimate choice relationships with increasing rejection of each race group as a whole by the other.

The adult community pattern of mutual race rejection did not appear clearly in the primary classes. In these groups, whites withdrew from Negroes without arousing any particular rejection from that race. But by the fifth grade level, the pattern of mutual rejection had distinctly appeared. The less distinct cleavage of younger groups appeared to arise from the different portent which race presents in the young child's social framework. Weak cleavage reflects the

² The author is indebted to Joan Criswell for this summary of her research.

child's lack of acute awareness of differentiating factors between one individual and another and the social implications of these factors, whether of a racial sort or otherwise.

In kindergarten and in the first three grades, little consideration in planning of group activities needs to be given to the racial composition that the group represents. The proportion of one race to another, at least in the instance of colored and white, will affect to no appreciable extent the securing of participation of all members. However, beyond the third grade, the relative withdrawal of the membership of one race from the membership of another race within the same group may make it necessary to use special techniques of group work to assure an optimum and equitable participation on the part of all members.

The same problem of race relations might also be studied by means of Bogardus' "Social Distance" Scale (46, 1925). This scale is constructed in terms of degree of intimacy which a person would sanction between himself and members of various races. The subject indicates, for example, whether he would admit a foreigner to neighborly relations, welcome him into his occupation, entertain him in his home, or marry him. The distance between each of the various degrees of intimacy on the scale is not necessarily comparable and each higher degree of intimacy does not imply all those that are lower. The scale, however, has done a great deal to clarify discussions of social relations.

In Macfarlane's significant "Guidance Study" (368, 1939) the sociometric technique was employed to study the children's reputation among classmates. Marked individual differences in social approval, disapproval, and notice were found. Some children had the support of continued social approval; others had to bear an equal weight of disapproval; and still others were ignored.

Of decided practical value to personnel workers are the experimental attempts to alter the interpersonal relationships within a group. Johnson (294, 1939) tried to change the initial intergroup social structure of two Junior Hi-Y groups of fourteen-year-old boys in the direction of increasing positive relationships between an isolate and other members of the group. The methods used were to ask a recognized leader in the group, Savage, by name, to see what he could do in getting the other fellows to like the isolate, Olivo. Savage was told "to look for the good points in Olivo and to try to be a friend to him." Savage was allowed to use his own method of accomplishing the desired results and the two boys were placed on the same committee in order to facilitate close association.

In the case of the other isolate, Hayes, the adult leader was instructed to attempt to bring him from his state of isolation into group acceptance.

After pursuing these methods for several weeks, the sociometric technique was again applied. It was found that Olivo's position in the group had changed from being rejected by six boys and chosen by none, to being rejected by four and chosen by three. This change in expressed relations with members of his group does not, of course, prove change in Olivo's personality such that he would more easily establish friendly relations with a new group. The better relationship may have been due in some subtle way to a change in the leader and his total relation to the group.

The other boy, Hayes, who initially had received one positive and four negative choices, lost in popularity during the same period when the adult leader had been trying to decrease his social isolation. "By asking the adult leader to work with this boy, it is possible that we increased the very reason for his unpopularity" (294:47, 1939).

One indication that these changes were not due to chance is that an isolate somewhat similar to Olivo, in a control group, did not improve his standing with the group. When no special effort was made to change specific interpersonal relationships or when a poor method was applied, as in the case of Hayes, no positive results were obtained. Moreover, the average changes in the group were greater than the changes in the isolates, whereas in the experimental group Olivo's change was equaled by only two boys and exceeded by none. When the results of an actual empirical chance distribution were compared with the real changes, it was found that, roughly, "the chances are in the neighborhood of 13 to 1 that a real change was produced in Olivo's acceptance by the group as a result of the social treatment applied to him over the seven-week period" (294:47-48, 1939). The successful treatment, it will be remembered, consisted of enlisting the interest of the popular leader in the unpopular boy. Except for the suggestion to look for the good points in Olivo, and to try to be a friend to him, the leader was left free to develop his own method of getting the other fellows to like Olivo. The only other aid given the leader was the appointment of Olivo on the same committee with Savage.

It is unfortunate that more detail of the method Savage used was not reported. This information could have been obtained by a diary record of the committee and club activities showing the activities of each individual in the group process.

d. **Evaluation of the sociometric technique.**—This technique of studying the relations of individuals in a group might better generally be called *sociography* than *sociometry* because, with the exception of the few attempts to quantify the intensity of relationship, relations are uncovered and described rather than measured. However, if the reliability and validity of the sociometric test can be adequately established, it will prove a valuable instrument for studying changes in social relations brought about by different methods. Lewin and Lippitt (344, 1938) have already used the sociometric test for the selection of two experimental groups, for their now widely known study of autocracy and democracy. The groups were selected so that they "would be as nearly equated as possible on the number and potency of friendship and rejection relationships, and on general popularity and leadership characteristics of the members (344:293, 1938).

In addition to its research value in understanding the nature of social groups, the sociometric technique may be useful in directing therapy. It may reveal individuals who are left stranded in the group, deprived of the relationships they need for their best development. Similarly, it may reveal social imbalances and "chains or networks of a detrimental nature" (205:80, 1939). Thus this kind of information about individual children may give important leads for any social-therapeutic program in a school.

Through group therapy the individual may be adjusted to the group by giving him the most favorable position in the group compatible with the needs of all other members. The information obtained by means of sociometric methods may also be useful in helping the leader to give every member of the group, not only the aggressive individuals, some of their associational preferences. The isolated individual, for example, may be encouraged to associate with as many individuals of his choice as are likely to have a constructive influence on him. Members of detrimental configurations may be assigned or re-assigned to break up harmful associations.

The assumption must not be made, however, that the expressed preferences of one person for another should necessarily be followed. By doing so, gangs or other detrimental chains or networks might be strengthened. Accordingly, in the application of sociometry, as in other personnel techniques, important decisions should not be made on the basis of any single test or measure.

The sociometric technique may also prove valuable to personnel workers in discovering the natural leaders in a high school or col-

lege. Having discovered these leaders, the personnel worker may enlist their interest in the organized groups on the campus.

Finally, if the sociometric test is followed by an interview, reasons for preferences in social relations may be obtained. This sort of follow-up helps the investigator to interpret the individual's choices and to establish the appropriateness or reasonableness of them. Much more information is needed about the characteristics of persons who are chosen by many and rejected by few and of the isolates whom nobody chooses.

3. GROUP MATHEMATICS

Attempts have been made to reduce human relations to mathematical formulas. Lewin (345:74-75, 1940) selected from a "total behavior" type of record some specific problem to study, extracting the quantitative aspects of the interaction to be studied from its meaningful matrix and expressing it in a mathematical formula. Thus certain interactions such as child-to-leader, leader-to-child, and child-to-child, can be translated into "size language" and interpreted in the light of the total setting.

Chapple (99, 1940) attempted to follow the methods of the physical sciences more closely. This approach necessitated reducing human behavior to small comparable units which he described as follows:

A *quantum of action* is the least discriminable unit of such activity manifested by an organism. A *unit of action* is that period of activity recorded from the initial change in muscular state until a second change brings the activity to an end. Each unit of action has a duration and may be regarded as made up of one or more quanta of action. When one or more quanta of action q_1 manifested by Individual *A*, are followed by one or more quanta of action p_1 , manifested by Individual *B*, the quanta q_1 may be regarded as the stimulus s_1 and the quanta p_1 as the response r_1 . Such a succession s_1r_1 will be defined as constituting *interaction* between the individuals *A* and *B* (99:24, 1940).

Chapple described other ingenious devices for making exact measurements of duration and other quantitative aspects of an individual's action.

It is difficult to see how this extreme of quantitative analysis offers any practical assistance in understanding the relation of one person to another. After quantifying the data and reducing it to a mathematical formula, the investigator may not be any more enlightened than he was after observing the behavior in its setting and writing

a full description of it. The psychological meaning of the data tends to vanish in mathematical technicalities.

Moreover, by limiting his data to those which can be objectively observed, reliability is increased at the expense of validity. Certain fundamental psychological principles are neglected: that the relation between two or more individuals is influenced by the matrix in which they act; that two examples of the same overt behavior may have entirely different significance; that, in a sense, the individual's entire past is operating at any present moment. Thus without a knowledge of the antecedents of a particular act or of the environmental conditions to which the individual is responding, the investigator cannot interpret the act in any meaningful way.

Instead of trying to apply the research methods of the physical sciences to the study of human relations, the investigator should develop a new methodology appropriate to this field. Attempts to study patterns rather than isolated elements, and to make qualitative sociometric techniques a little more quantitative are steps in the right direction.

4. SUMMARY

All three methods of studying human behavior in groups—descriptive accounts of group activity, the sociometric method, and mathematical measurements—are worthy of further study. The running account describes behavior in its setting; the sociometric method introduces subjective feeling factors which may not be revealed by overt behavior; the quantitative analysis of certain interactions, interpreted in the light of the whole situation may have special diagnostic value. Combined, they contribute to a "total-behavior-in-its-setting" approach which is the most promising methodology yet developed for the study of the interaction of individuals.

B. EXPERIMENTS ON METHODS OF GROUP WORK

Groups are sociological wholes. As such, their characteristics can be observed and described. The atmosphere created in the group is intangible but is as important for the individual's development as the air he breathes. In the preceding pages reference has already been made to important recent research along these lines (341, 1939; 345, 1940).

Every educator is aware of the importance of the "atmosphere" or "social climate" of a classroom, club, or school. Even the casual visitor can recognize a hostile, unco-operative atmosphere; a tense, high-pressure atmosphere; a friendly, co-operative atmosphere.

Ryan (505, 1938) noted marked difference in the atmospheres of classrooms which he visited. On further inquiry he found that the unusually good mental hygiene atmosphere in one school system was related to the teachers' education in child guidance. Precise study is needed to gain more adequate insights into the influence of various group atmospheres on human behavior.

One of the earliest attempts to study the group process was made by Thrasher (582, 1927). From his collection of group-life histories the reader may obtain many insights into such conditions as the influence of external authority, internal unity of purpose, group goals, the sense of belongingness, and the effect of tension under different circumstances.

Almost ten years later Pigors (452, 1935) made an analysis of two contrasting methods of group work which he designated as *leadership* and *domination*. He applied his method of study to political groups, children, industrial organizations, and primitive societies.

Basic to an understanding of group work is the psychological theory of environmental forces in child behavior and development. Lewin in his *A Dynamic Theory of Personality* (340, 1935) presented the point of view of Gestalt psychology in his discussion of the region of freedom of movement, forces and fields of force, "strata of reality in the environment," reward, and punishment. He is concerned with the study of why, in a given situation or environment, a particular person in a certain state behaves as he does. The group worker likewise must study behavior of individuals as "a function of the momentary total situation."

The idea of the psychological environment in terms of regions, barriers, boundary zones, and forces, is presented in more detail in Lewin's *Principles of Topological Psychology* (343, 1936).

Because of the recency and significance of their experiments, the research of Lewin and his associates in this area will be summarized in detail. The best published bibliography of this series of investigations may be found in the 1940 University of Iowa bulletin, *Studies in Topological and Vector Psychology* (345, 1940). In this bulletin a complete bibliography of previously published articles is available. For that reason references to the separate articles will not be included in the bibliography in this volume. The investigators' purpose was to set up an experiment where the structure and development of natural group behavior of different kinds might be described and recorded as a whole.

These experiments are exceptional in many respects. The group

and its activities were described with unusual adequacy—the structural and dynamic properties of the group, the position of the group in the larger social field, the individual characteristics of the members, the physical setting, and the nature of the group activity. The authoritarian group and the democratic group were roughly equated with respect to initial interpersonal relations by an ingenuous application of the sociometric technique. Details of the methods of obtaining data are reported on pages 230 to 231. The aim of the elaborate technique of observation was to obtain exact quantitative records of the total behavior of the group in order that the meaning of the specific conduct within the total setting might be ascertained.

The two groups were differentiated in the following ways:

Authoritarian Group

1. Policies were all determined by the leader, the strongest person.
2. Techniques and steps of completing the work were dictated, one at a time, by the leader. Thus the future direction of the activity was not clear to the members.
3. The leader usually determined what each member was to do and with whom he was to work.
4. The leader criticized or praised individuals and remained impersonal and aloof from group participation.

Democratic Group

1. Policies were a matter of group determination with guidance by the leader.
2. The general plan of work was developed co-operatively at the first meeting. When questions as to specific procedures arose, the leader gave several suggestions from which the individual could choose.
3. The members were free to choose their work partners and the division of tasks was left to the group.
4. The leader generally gave praise to the group as a whole and was a member of the group in spirit.

In terms of social interactions the authoritarian leader was about twice as active as the democratic leader. Actions which might be described as "ascendant" were nearly three times as frequent on the part of the authoritarian leader as on the part of the democratic leader. "Submissive actions" were relatively rare in both cases, but especially so in the case of the authoritarian leader. In both groups the leaders were really leading, but the autocratic leader more obviously so. He initiated 118 per cent more acts than the average ideal member of a group, as compared with 41 per cent more initiated by the democratic leader. Thus, as the dominance of the leader increases, the free movement of the members was narrowed. In the democratic

atmosphere the difference between the leader and the member was much less pronounced than in the autocratic setup.

Results and interpretations were based on general impressions obtained from the group log supplemented and checked by detailed quantitative analysis of the data. Members' behavior was analyzed in terms of specific social interactions—ascendant, submissive, objective, and ignoring behavior—on the part of individuals, within subgroups, between subgroups, and in relation to total group structure. Conversation was analyzed in terms of hostility, competition and co-operation, aggression, "I-centeredness" (egocentrism) *versus* "we-centeredness" (group spirit), self-direction and dependence on authority, and other characteristics. Changes of interest were noted in terms of "group stability, outbreak of hostility, and standards of production."

The group leader may gain many concrete suggestions for meeting practical situations from the published protocol material. For example, the different methods of giving a member instruction is illustrated by the following sample from group conversation:

Autocratic Group

Joe: "How can we keep the plaster of Paris from sticking to the clay mould? Is this powder O.K.?"

Leader: "No, take that vaseline and rub it on carefully."

Democratic Group

Dick: "Won't stick to the mould."

Leader: "I know of several ways you could fix that—you could grease it with vaseline, or use some talcum powder, or they use liquid soap sometimes. Maybe there are other ways, too" (345:117, 1940).

Similarly, many other points of technique are illustrated by the stenographic reports of procedures used by the democratic and the authoritarian leaders. In general, the authoritarian leader

frustrated individual goals which did not coincide with his own, and induced his own goals and paths by the strength of his social power-field. . . . the democratic method of inducing goals and paths was to point out what were considered more desirable goals for the members for them to choose or reject from the alternative before them (345:122, 1940).

The major differences between the two groups may be briefly summarized as:

1. The democratic group did not show verbal aggression toward the leader nor try to make their social status more secure by winning his favor.

2. The democratic members remained more accessible to personal approaches from the leader.
3. Work in the democratic group was not interfered with by competing personal goals as it was in the authoritarian group.
4. A higher degree of "we-centeredness" and less conflict between members was evident in the democratic group.
5. No need for release of hostility toward any member was apparent in the democratic group, whereas two scapegoats were features of the authoritarian group.
6. The feeling of group belongingness and pride in the group products was much stronger in the democratic than in the authoritarian group.
7. "More creative and constructive work products emerged from the higher unity of the democratic life with its greater amount of objectivity and co-operativeness of interpersonal relationships. The last meeting of the authoritarian group indicated the existence of an underlying hostile attitude toward life in the authoritarian situation" (345:190-91, 1940).

More extensive experiments involving a larger number of clubs of ten-year-old boys and introducing *laissez-faire*, or "group life without adult participation," were reported in a separate article (346, 1939). The *laissez-faire* groups were characterized by

1. Complete freedom for group or individual decision, without any leader participation.
2. Various materials supplied by leader, who made it clear that he would supply information when asked. He took no other part in work discussions.
3. Complete non-participation by leader.
4. Very frequent comments on member activities unless questioned, and no attempt to participate or interfere with the course of events (346:273, 1939).

Additional data were collected, including movie records of several segments of club life; information from school records on intellectual status, physical status, and socio-economic background; interviews with each boy by a friendly person not connected with the club to ascertain the boy's opinions on club activities; interviews with parents to ascertain kinds of discipline employed in the home, status of the child in the family group, and child's attitude toward the club, school, and other group activities; talks with teachers to ascertain the boys' behavior in school; and a Rorschach test to each club member.

Two additional points of experimental technique were introduced

in the later experiments: a group of observers in an adjoining part of the clubroom whom the boys thought were engaged in some work of their own and "group test" situations such as having the leader arrive late or leave the room for awhile on other business, or having a stranger criticize the group's activities.

In the later experiments four of the authoritarian groups showed apathetic rather than aggressive behavior. That this lack of aggression was probably caused by the repressive influence of the authoritarian leader is indicated by the outbursts of aggression on the days of transition to a freer atmosphere and also a sharp rise of aggression when the leader left the room. In the authoritarian groups a general absence of smiling, joking, and friendly response to leader and fellow members was evident.

Briefly summarized, the main differences in the three types of atmosphere were as follows:

1. Autocracy tended to bring out one or the other of two dissimilar patterns of behavior, apathy and aggression;
2. "*laissez-faire*," in which there was a minimum of adult participation, proved decidedly different from democracy;
3. friendly behavior was most frequent in democracy, hostile behavior in *laissez-faire* and in the aggressive reaction to autocracy. Much of this aggression was directed against scapegoats (351:557, 1939).

Because these experiments are so close to the "real" world, the temptation to make wide applications of the results is great. This tendency is discouraged by the investigators themselves. The age of the subjects, the personality of the leader, the previous and present influence of the culture, and the nature of the group goals are only a few of the factors that might modify the results obtained in these experiments. Accordingly, it is important to repeat these experiments with various groups. In each case the structure and dynamics of the total situation should be fully described.

Even these initial experiments, however, supply hypotheses which leaders of groups far and wide may test informally. By a conscious, consistent application of the democratic procedure as described in these experiments, leaders may promote marked changes in the friendliness, happiness, co-operativeness, initiative, and feeling of "we-ness" in their groups.

C. METHODS OF PLAY THERAPY

Group experience can complement case work treatment. In a specialized form group work has been applied successfully in the treat-

ment of maladjusted children. Designated as *play technique* or *play therapy*, this form of group activity combines many features of case work and group work. This combination of techniques may be illustrated by several descriptions of special psychiatric groups, summer camps, and other applications of group therapy.

I. PLAY THERAPY IN SPECIAL PSYCHIATRIC GROUPS

Martin (387, 1939) has given a detailed description of psychiatry in a boys' club. All new members were interviewed in a clubroom familiar to the boys by a psychiatrist who explains that he is there to help them find out what they want to do at the club. Leading questions are avoided and the "play-fun-games theme" is predominant in the interview. The interview material is then analyzed, made available to other members of the staff and discussed with them. With this knowledge of individual boys, club leaders, with the assistance of other workers, try to relieve personal problems within the club. To a less extent they also try to relieve the problems at home.

After two years' experimentation with the foregoing procedures, the following can be positively stated:

1. They are acceptable to the boys.
2. They succeed in uncovering serious problems of boyhood (harmful parental attitudes) unobtrusively and without arousing suspicion.
3. They point the way for the Boys' Club to become a *sensitized social medium* for settling these problems—a social medium that can compete successfully with the anti-social gang.
4. They succeed in relieving these problems and effect improvement in the relationships of those boys who are seriously involved.
5. They can be formulated and presented to the personnel in simple comprehensive language because they deal throughout with social and not psychic conditions.
6. They provide the personnel with a new orientation, that reveals the great significance and potentiality of their everyday relationships. This helps toward a deeper understanding and a better handling of the daily questions and problems that arise.
7. They lead to a more rational and discriminating use of routine Club facilities. Deeper understanding enables the staff to see new ways of using the existing set-up. The Club program is thus enriched along the most appropriate lines.
8. They can be adopted and practiced as an integral part of the day-to-day program without any radical change in Club policy, organization, or personnel.
9. They do not alter the role of the Club in the community (387:132, 1939).

Group activities in an adolescents' ward in Bellevue Psychiatric Hospital was described by Curran (134, 1939). This ward was opened to care for boys between twelve and sixteen years of age. Patients can be kept only thirty days. The boys engage in the following groups projects and activities:

1. Two classes, one an ungraded class, the other an "opportunity" class.
2. Singing classes and rhythm band which offer creative group activities in the field of music.
3. Art classes in which the individual is encouraged to draw anything he wants to. Notes are taken while he is painting and encouragement rather than criticism given. Any spontaneous comments he makes about his work are recorded.
4. Dramatic activities in which the boys write their plays and act them out.
5. "Magic" activities, a group in which the boys learn to do "magic" and sleight of hand.
6. Storytelling in which the leader of a group of five to ten boys begins to tell a story and then asks different boys to continue or complete it.
7. Athletic activities.
8. Bead work in which the boys make rings, bracelets, etc., of permanent value.
9. Miscellaneous activities such as games, travel and educational films, and ballroom dancing lessons.

The real purpose of these group activities is to give each boy a better understanding of his individual difficulties and to make some form of social adaptation possible for him.

An individual case in which individual and group therapy were dynamically interrelated in the plan of treatment of a ten-year-old boy was described in detail by Miller and Slavson (405, 1939). The boy daydreamed excessively and was very absent minded. He did not play with other children. At home he was unmanageable, demanding, and had violent temper tantrums. In the play group four needs of this boy were supplied: the need for acceptance, for ego satisfaction, for creative activity, and for social re-education. These needs were met by leaving the child free to do whatever he liked, by providing materials for creative activity, and by encouraging any tendencies toward helpfulness, co-operation, and social activity. Thus the boy learned that conduct other than infantile behavior would get him the attention he wanted. The group provided an environment in which the boy could try out his new-found strengths and could

express his drive for aggressiveness and independence without fear of rejection or punishment. While this group adjustment was going on, the case work relationship provided the necessary stabilizing and supporting influence which the boy needed.

At Eloise Hospital, Michigan (8, 1940), a year's experience with group therapy yielded excellent results. The patients met daily in small groups and the benefit of the social unity of the group and assistance of some of the patients reinforced the application of psychoanalytic methods.

2. PLAY THERAPY IN CAMPS

In camps as well as in psychiatric hospitals the therapeutic values of group work are being recognized (109, 1939; 213, 1937). The counselor of each group of eight to ten boys is the key person in the situation. It is he who understands the background and personality needs of each member of his group, is able to establish a relationship which is of vital importance, and encourages creativity, self-reliance, and self-expression through camp activities. Camp life affords opportunities for a child with emotional problems "to work out more satisfactory relationships with other people," to strengthen new habit patterns, and to gain insight and perspective on his problems.

3. GROUP PROJECTS AND PROJECTIVE TECHNIQUES

Some individuals especially need the responsibility of contributing to a group project. Anderson (10, 1936) described two projects—remodeling an old cottage into a craft shop and developing a marionette show—which had definite therapeutic value for psychiatric patients.

An unusual attempt to study normal college students by means of the play technique was made by Homburger (271, 1937). Each subject was presented with a number of small toys with which he was asked to construct a dramatic scene. His activities were observed through a one-way vision screen, his explanation recorded, and the scene he had constructed sketched.

A somewhat similar procedure was used in studying schizophrenia and other psychoses (495, 1937). Typically varied patterns were discernible for normal, paranoid, and hebephrenic subjects. The normal persons were "typically planful," the paranoid moderately planful but "obsessively vacillating and fussy in the execution of his plan." The hebephrenic patient showed the least amount of planfulness and vacillation.

4. THE PSYCHODRAMA

Recognizing the therapeutic values of dramatics, Moreno developed specific techniques which he calls the psychodrama and the spontaneity test and spontaneity training. In the spontaneity test the subject dramatizes his relationship with members of the group to whom he is related either through attraction or rejection.

The emotion selected by the subject (or the emotion selected by a person acting opposite the subject), the words spoken during the act, and the duration of the act give additional insight into inter-personal relationships which the sociometric test cannot reveal. . . . The subject in the spontaneity test is spontaneous in the momentary realization of a relationship with another person in a situation constructed in such a manner as to resemble real life (205:78, 1939).

Training consists of "an extension and application of the spontaneity test. The two combined are known as the *psychodrama*" (205:81, 1939). The theory underlying the psychodrama is that the way is paved for overcoming resistances in real life by successfully overcoming them in the therapeutic situation, beginning with the simpler situations and gradually dealing with those of greater complexity and reality.

The psychodrama has diagnostic as well as therapeutic value.

The duration of a spontaneous performance, the warming up to a role, the individual acts of moving and speaking on the stage, the intervals between such acts, sudden interpolations of resistance against continuing a performance, the ability to respond during the performance to the acts and pauses of partners, the relative flexibility and inflexibility of the individual actor from step to step, the premature breaking up of a performance, the inability to end it or the protracting and delaying of an ending—all these phenomena experienced in the course of psychodramatic work have often given us clues to an understanding of the personality difficulties of the actor (507:38, 1939).

A description of the application of the psychodrama to delinquent girls in an institution (48, 1940) reveals vividly the values and also the dangers in the application of this technique. The cases of retraining for better vocational adjustment, for improvement in social behavior, and for better mother-daughter relations are the most convincing.

"The function of the psychodrama is to produce a catharsis and release of tension, thus preparing the individual for an easier adjustment in the real situation" (161:24, 1940).

5. THE AUDIENCE SITUATION

Several suggestions for public speaking have arisen from the sociometric and spontaneity techniques (204, 1939). To overcome fear of an audience, Franz suggested that

several individuals who had either been chosen by the speaker or had chosen him were asked to make a "special" audience. This special audience encouraged the speaker by asking relevant questions about the subject. . . . This experiment had an immediate effect upon the speaker. His speaking voice became more natural and conversational; in other words, he was beginning to speak to the *individuals* in the group and not to an *audience*. Contact with two or three key persons in the group led naturally to contact with all individuals in the group (204:50-51, 1939).

To help the speaker identify himself closely with the words he speaks, he was asked to assume a number of simple roles. The next step was to ask how to create a role for himself suggested by his talks and to re-create the incident he was describing as accurately as possible.

6. VALUES OF PLAY THERAPY

Although play therapy may take many different forms, there are certain common principles underlying this aspect of group work. Through art media, puppets, dramatization, and games, many persons will reveal sources of maladjustment. They will frequently talk more freely in groups than they will alone, thus giving the worker insight into their unconscious lives. Play techniques are a means of "establishing rapport with children who are not spontaneously expressive" (34:250, 1937). Play therapy is also valuable in giving individuals needed social experiences as well as outlets for motor, verbal, and aesthetic impulses. It offers opportunities for working out aggression, for getting relief from tensions, and for developing social skills. Thus it is possible to give each person "a better understanding of his own problems, and to produce a therapy which reveals to the child his individual difficulties and finally make possible for him some form of social adaptation" (134:1384, 1939).

These values accrue to the individual only if this sort of therapy is skillfully employed. It is equally possible to cause anxiety, insecurity, and guilty feelings in the play situation, for relationships in a group are more difficult to control than relationships in an individual interview.

GROUP ACTIVITIES

D. GROUP DISCUSSION³

Group discussion increased in prominence on the college campus during 1940-41 as part of the Defense Program. In many colleges forums, discussion groups, and panels dealing with current problems of democracy have been added to the campus activities. This expansion of the discussion method throws a heavy responsibility upon personnel workers for the selection and training of leaders for these newly organized groups.

Group discussion has been called the "core of democracy." In the opinion of the writer, however, the "core of democracy" is a deep interpenetration of the humane spirit in all personal relations. Group discussion may well be considered an implement of democracy.

✓ I. VALUES OF GROUP DISCUSSION

As an implement of democracy, group discussion has two main values—(1) that of increasing the individual's sense of personal worth, giving him information, and modifying his values or attitudes; and (2) the value of clarifying questions, solving problems, arriving at sound decisions, and developing plans of action important to the group. Thus in group discussion the process is as important as the end result, for in the process of group discussion individuals may learn how to contribute effectively to the thinking of the group and to incorporate the ideas and experiences of others into their own thinking.

First among the personal values is the increased self-esteem that may result from successful participation in group discussion. The discussion method offers opportunities for all members of a group to contribute to problems confronting the group thus giving everyone, whatever his ability and prestige status, a personal sense of belonging.

In Elliott's words, group discussion is

a process which relates all involved in a situation, the more able, the more mature, with the less able and the less mature, in a process in which all have the opportunity to contribute in proportion to their ability (171:17, 1928).

Thus opportunity is offered for the contribution of the expert as well as for the point of view of persons of less depth and breadth of experience. The better acquainted the members are with one another, the more at ease they will feel in contributing their ideas. Each, then, becomes an essential member of the group through hav-

³ The author is indebted to Roberta Winans for much of the material in this section.

ing been of service to it. Accordingly, the first requisite of an effective discussion is an issue that both leader and members of the group consider pertinent and worthwhile and one on which they as a group are capable of action in accordance with the decision. It is idle to "discuss" facts or to "discuss" questions about which the members have no opinions of value. If, however, the topic is timely and cogent, the members will have a motivated readiness to contribute to the discussion. The successful contribution of each member, in turn, will result in a personal satisfaction and a sense of belonging to the group.

The second personal value of group discussion results from the sharing of experience in which the individual's outlook is broadened, his ability to think logically is improved, his attitudes and his proficiency in speaking before a group increased. Group discussion may stimulate the student to more precise thinking based on accurate information. A comparison of his contribution with that of other members of the group frequently reveals to the individual his own lack of knowledge and clarity of thinking. He is thereby motivated to seek sources of information and to organize his thoughts more precisely. In fact, the process of critical thinking is the core of group discussion, and the core of critical thinking is the personal attitudes ("open-mindedness, whole-hearted interest, responsibility in facing consequences") which animate the thinking process.

Dewey (147:29-34, 1933) stated that these personal attitudes are more important than knowledge of or practice in the best forms of thought but that both the development of attitudes and logical processes of thinking are necessary and can be woven into unity. In order to attain this unity, the group leader should not only encourage precision of thinking, but also the expression of such attitudes as those mentioned above.

Moreover, the group leader should not only create conditions conducive to the free, unobstructed communication of ideas and experiences, but he should also be skillful in eliciting response from the retiring individual and in redirecting the monopolistic ardor of the loquacious. Under such favorable conditions the individual can learn to listen understandingly and to speak ably. Thus group discussion may give a student training in expressing his ideas co-operatively and in incorporating the ideas of others into his own patterns of thinking and feeling. Prejudices have been dissipated (and sometimes created), emotional biases modified, and attitudes changed, for better or for worse, as the result of group discussion. Ideally, during a discussion, the individual should achieve an integration of

emotional and intellectual elements. Other social characteristics which may be developed in group discussions include a respect for the opinions of others, techniques of co-operation, and sensitivity concerning when to speak and when to refrain from offering one's experience and opinion to the group. Equally important is a sense of responsibility which prevents him from being too lazy to follow the thought of the group and to contribute his share to the discussion. Moreover, participation in a group in which the individual feels at home serves as a valuable transition agent from the intimate family circle to the larger social groups which he usually enters during adolescence.

Values may accrue to the group as well as to the individual members. Ably handled, group discussion should result in a better understanding of one's neighbors and of certain social issues and problems. Something creative for society should emerge from group discussion. The creative aspect is usually in the discovery of new relationships, initial disagreement frequently serving as a stimulus to the search for an integration of conflicting opinions and desires. Follett (198:301-302, 1924) has aptly designated this process as "co-creating."

In order to achieve this creative synthesis of experience, diversity in the group must be recognized as a potential of creativity, and the social process conceived as an "interpenetration of spirit and spirit," not as "the opposing and battle of desires with the victory of one over the other" (198:301-302, 1924). According to Dr. Lyman Bryson, discussion is an exercise in "intellectual sportsmanship" and is to be distinguished from the process of "putting something across" or of arriving at a preconceived answer as in the Socratic dialogues.

Thus conceived, group co-operation does not imply the sacrifice of the individual to social interests. The aim is not compromise or the subjugation of the weaker to the stronger personality, but the integration of clashing desires in the process of evolving important ideas.

This ideal of group discussion obviously is not automatically attained every time anyone says, "Let us discuss this." The conditions already described may not have been provided. An even more serious hindrance to effective discussion is the presence of individuals within the group who prefer to maintain their own ideas irrespective of another's and who are motivated by selfish interest. These may disrupt the co-operative spirit of the group in several ways. They may by sheer intensity of insistence upon their point of view prevent the participation of less dominant members. Or they may later use illegit-

imately the original ideas of gifted members of the group for their own purposes.

The outcomes of group work will be as broad as the vision of the leader and as deep as his understanding of its functions and potentialities—no broader and no deeper.

2. TYPES OF DISCUSSION GROUPS

There are many forms of discussion groups which have potential educational value. The major factors determining classification of discussion groups are continuity of membership, homogeneity or heterogeneity of subject matter, degree of formality of procedure and rigidity of guidance toward predetermined conclusions, official and unofficial member roles, size of the group, complexity of organization, and number of persons participating as leaders. On these bases discussion groups may be classified into a number of types, each of which will be briefly described.

A forum is the most rigid type. It need not involve discussion at all, being merely a lecture with time for questions. In some forums, however, the question period is followed by an opportunity for members of the audience to express their views in statements usually limited to three minutes.

In a symposium, several persons who are experts or have made a special study of a topic present their several views. This presentation may be followed by discussion consisting of a more or less formal interchange of ideas among the speakers and the audience.

The panel is a discussion among a small group of well-qualified persons before a larger group who are later drawn into a more general discussion. Many strange forms of meeting have been designated as "panel discussions," including huge gatherings at which loud speakers had to be used. In its original and most appropriate use, the panel is in an informal setting with fewer than one hundred people present, so that ordinary conversational tone suffices. Ideally, the members of the panel are well qualified to speak on the topic but have not predetermined the course of the discussion except in a very general way. Unless this informality and spontaneity can be achieved, it is better to have a symposium rather than to prostitute the panel form.

The *town meeting* derives from the New England setting where most of the residents turned out to discuss their local government and to modify it as they think necessary. In the opinion of many persons, the town meeting is the only truly democratic way of governing. In more complex and highly organized communities, how-

ever, this form of discussion becomes difficult. At present the term *town meeting* is used to describe any situation in which general discussion of important issues is allowed, even where the decisions are quite out of the hands of the discussers.

The *lecture-discussion* differs from the forum in that the discussion is less formal and frequently more erudite. It is a very common form of *classroom teaching*. The teacher or leader expands the "introductory remarks" to give background or factual material upon which to base the discussion. Members of the group are then free to discuss in any of the usual ways. Various researches have indicated that the lecture is about as good or slightly better than discussion for immediate recall, but that retention is considerably better when the discussion method is used.

The lecture can be dispensed with entirely when the *general discussion* intended to educate is in the hands of a skillful leader. It becomes a process of co-operative effort to arrive at conclusions upon which to base individual and group behavior. In general, the discussion is focused upon the applications of authoritative information and upon opinions not yet accepted as "facts."

The *platform conversation* resembles the panel except that the small group who are to discuss in public sit upon a platform before a rather large audience and conduct the discussion among themselves without drawing others in. Its chief object seems to be (1) to demonstrate the interplay among minds, not in agreement but seeking to reach a synthesis of ideas that can be used as a basis of action, or (2) to show shades of difference which will help members of the audience to develop their own thinking, or (3) to demonstrate good procedure for serious conversation.

Parliamentary or governmental discussion is the form used in most student representative groups that are charged with varying amounts of responsibility for conducting student and campus affairs. Faculty members may be an integral part of the body or may be present as "resources." It becomes essential in such meetings that a certain amount of formal parliamentary procedure be followed, with motions made, seconded, passed, and recorded in orderly fashion, since the group is responsible to a larger constituency. Much time and patience is apt to be lost at such meetings, but, in view of the importance of this type of procedure in the conduct of the affairs of life after school days are over, it would not seem amiss to give more attention, in the conscious teaching process, to this form of discussion and action.

Special techniques are required when discussion is for the specific

purpose of *resolving sharp conflict*. The arch-type of such bodies is perhaps the joint committee of labor and management where industrial conflict is involved. Hader and Lindeman (231, 1933), in *Dynamic Social Research*, have set forth the process clearly. In a school situation conflicts arise, and such meetings may be educative in a peculiar sense, but are correspondingly difficult and delicate to deal with, calling for skilled and respected leadership.

The "*bull session*" is a form of discussion that arises spontaneously and informally at any time and place not on the regular schedule. By its very nature it cannot be organized, yet it is perhaps one of the best tests of quality of the teaching and learning that is going on in an institution. It is the things that students deeply care about that they will discuss after hours, and because the opinions expressed are those of their peers they are taken peculiarly to heart. Such discussions may be the direct, logical, and continuing outcome of a kind of teaching that strikes home, or they may be in the nature of a protest. Of the latter kind are the "liberal clubs" that spring up in fundamentalist colleges—not "clubs" in the usual sense, but groups of students bound together in the mutual elation of protest against the authoritarian teachings of the "powers that be." In after life "jaw clubs" sometimes flourish for a time in communities, giving thoughtful people a chance to thresh out their opinions against those of friendly but disagreeing neighbors. Teachers and deans should and can do nothing directly about these spontaneous discussion groups, but awareness of them is an excellent check on effectiveness of the more controlled program. Occasionally a privileged teacher or older person may be an integral part of one of these "gangs"—may even be the catalytic agent responsible for their formation. Many inferences may be drawn from Moreno's *Who Shall Survive* (413, 1934) as to the educational significance of putting oneself in good relationship to serious discussion groups. To be chosen by those whom one would choose as conversing companions may be very influential in deciding one's educational fate.

The *round table* should be just that: a group small enough to put their feet under a common table to discuss purposefully some project in which they are engaged. This is sometimes called the "conference," though the latter term is also applied to both the individual interview and a far larger meeting of a special kind. In some universities the classrooms are equipped with huge "round tables," so that reasonably small classes may feel the intimacy of this arrangement and further their studies co-operatively.

The *seminar*, strictly, is a small discussion group of people en-

gaged in research, formed for their mutual help. It usually consists of both faculty and advanced students in a relationship more nearly that of peers than in the usual advanced class. There are a number of variations, one of them being a meeting set up to put a doctoral candidate "on the spot" in preparation for final defense of his dissertation. Probably any group whose project is of a research nature and who meet, faculty and students together, may be deemed a seminar.

There are various methods and purposes for *subdividing a large group* for discussion. At large conferences there are often "general sessions" followed by a subdivision of groups with special interests.

Probably there are an infinite number of variations that can be made on discussion groups. All seem aimed at more democratic and co-operative participation in the learning and decision forming process. They give the alert leader clues as to the direction and weak points in the students' reasoning, and particularly as to their ability to develop under the give-and-take of association and opposition. There is difference of opinion as to the maturity required in students for participation in educative discussion, but beginnings at least can be made with quite small children in realms where decisions co-operatively arrived at can be carried out in practice.

Group discussion may profitably be used to supplement the questionnaire in the study of student problems. Zorbaugh (650, 1937) employed this combination of methods to obtain college students' appraisal of home and school.

3. PROCEDURE OF GROUP DISCUSSION

The most helpful publications on group discussion are the crystallizations of procedures employed by able discussion leaders (171, 1928; 182, 1926; 185, 1934; 228, 1927; 333, 1936; 523, 1929; 610, 1933). From these publications practical suggestions concerning conditions that facilitate effective thinking in a group, steps to be taken, methods of launching a discussion, and specific suggestions for both leaders and members may be obtained. Space in this chapter permits only a brief summary of some of the most valuable suggestions.

Discussion is facilitated by each member coming to the discussion with an inquiring mind and an intent to share his knowledge and experience with the group. Such sharing is encouraged by a sense of mutuality and fellowship aided by physical proximity and limitation of numbers to fifteen or twenty.

Six steps have been set forth to assist the leader in preparing for

a discussion. These merge one into the other and vary with the circumstances. The first step is the selection and formulation of a real life problem, of significance to all the members of the group and demanding a decision which affects all of them. In the school situation true discussion cannot take place unless the students are assured that the results of their discussion may be used in actually changing administrative policies.

The problem selected for discussion should be stated in their own words so that its connection with their own lives is evident to them. The way the problem is stated and apprehended by members of the group limits their responses. A reformulation of the problem in a fresh and vital way is frequently essential to vital thinking on it.

Moreover, the choice of a problem which can be solved by the group is important from the standpoint of future discussion. Previous success in solving problems stimulates a vigorous attack on new problems. Accordingly, the problem should be one on which there is sufficient fact and experience upon which to arrive at a solution. Group discussion is not a process by which individuals pool their ignorance with the expectation that reliable results will somehow emerge.

The second step is to get at the real problem and make it vivid and significant to the group. This may be done by approaching it through personal experiences, through viewing it in its whole social setting, and through bringing all opposing points of view fairly and fully into the open.

Since a decision must rest upon a sound basis of fact, the third step is to mobilize the facts bearing upon the problem. Thinking cannot progress without facts. Members of the group may pool the results of their reading and experience. The leader may supplement the contribution of the group from his previous study of the problem. Sometimes certain members may be assigned to read some references, interview certain persons, or make observations to report later. When special information is needed, an expert may be invited to participate in the group discussion or to give a lecture on the points in question. Facts are to be *used* in discussion, not discussed. If a dispute concerning facts arises and no authoritative source is present, the point should be dropped until the facts have been made available. Whenever differences of opinion frequently arise from false assumptions as to fact, the attention of the group, in such cases, should be directed to the underlying facts. Used in the service of logical habits of thought, facts are essential to effective group discussion.

The fourth step is to suggest all possible solutions, examine, and evaluate each. Any feasible solutions not suggested by the group should be presented by the leader. He should also make generous mention of the points of agreement. He should point out differences of opinion which exist, and try to bring out the underlying reasons for these differences and ways in which they can contribute to the ultimate solution of the problem.

In many cases the discussion will continue until a consensus of opinion is reached. This is the fifth step in the process. At that point the leader summarizes what appears to be the solution of the problem. When no agreement is sought, the leader should summarize in such a way that the members see clearly the contribution that has been made by the thinking of the group, the stage finally reached, and the factors that will help each of the members to arrive at a satisfactory conclusion. In arriving at a decision a group is often aided by a period of relaxation which may produce a "good idea" or an "inspiration," when continued effort in thinking has failed.

The sixth and last step which varies with the nature of the group and the problem is that of making a plan for definitely carrying the conclusion of the group into action. Although the group may not have the responsibility for immediately translating their decision into action, it should not break up without its members at least feeling that the group's work will have been ineffective unless each member considers what he can do about the decision reached.

The discussion is commonly launched by oral questions asked by the leader. The leader should carefully formulate his first question in advance and have a general line of procedure definitely in mind. This preliminary thought on the problem should not determine the outcome of the discussion, but simply restrict the field and prevent waste motions. It is best to open the discussion with some simple question on which all the members have experience or ideas, such as the following:

"How does this problem concern you personally?"

"What are some of the points of disagreement on this problem?"

"What are some of the opinions you have read or heard expressed in regard to this problem?"

Such questions help the members to get acquainted with one another before they have to express their own views. The initial questions may be followed by others that bring out more specific facts relating to different phases of the problem. Written questions are likewise frequently used to launch the discussion.

In general, the question method is more likely to evoke good

thinking than a presentation of the problem by the leader or an expert. Unless skillfully done, the latter method may easily tend to inhibit the thinking of the group. If the speaker covers the problem specifically and exhaustively, the members of the group might easily feel that there is no more to say or that the speakers know the topic so well that they hesitate to say anything for fear of displaying ignorance. On the other hand, the presentation may be made in such a way that the whole problem is made concrete and definite for the group to think about.

Other methods of launching discussion place more responsibility upon the members. In the panel method a few members begin the discussion among themselves and gradually draw the whole group into the discussion. In a somewhat similar way the leader may begin an informal conversation with the first-comers and draw others into the discussion as they arrive. The roll call is a more formal approach in which each member makes a short statement on the problem. In the case method the leader may ask the group for an instance which illustrates the problem under discussion and may develop the discussion around the concrete case described. Tests with a game emphasis may be used as a springboard for discussion. These tests are effective insofar as they reveal to the members of the group their knowledge or lack of knowledge and stimulate them to find the correct answers.

The leader has an important responsibility in encouraging and developing good discussion techniques on the part of the members. In order to contribute most effectively to the group and make the greatest personal growth, each member should assume the attitude of listening and learning, changing his preconceived ideas as new evidence is presented, contributing briefly any relevant knowledge or experience which he possesses, being alert to see new relationships and possible solutions, and integrating his own personal desires with the purpose of the group.

With respect to his own part in the discussion, the leader has certain definite responsibilities. He should be thoroughly familiar with the problem to be discussed but flexible in his orientation to it. He will not talk too much himself. Instead, he will tend to stay in the background except as he is needed to supply information; to bring all members of the group into the discussion; to hold them to the points being discussed; to keep the thought of the group progressing; and to summarize from time to time, indicating the trend of discussion, the agreements reached, and the significant differences of opinion. In order to do this, he should be acquainted with the

members of the group, sensitive to their wishes, and able to evoke from them their special contributions. By knowing the names of members and referring to each by name, he will be able to enlist the maximum number of participants in the discussion. He should encourage all relevant points of view and not be afraid of silence or informality. He must guard against forcing his opinion on the group and arousing antagonism in any way. All of these procedures require alertness, human sympathy, emotional control, patience, enthusiasm, and specific skill on the part of the leader.

Effective group discussion may be hindered by a number of psychological factors. Strong prejudices, fixed ideas, and past loyalties often prevent members of the group from accepting or even considering points of view different from their own. Personal ambition, personal animosities, and avidity for prestige may make it impossible for an individual to acknowledge the justice and truth of another side of the question. Hypersensitiveness to real or imagined criticism, fear of appearing ridiculous, or inhibitions built from past defeats may deter members of the group from making valuable contributions to the discussion. Emotion unchecked by logical thinking lands many discussion groups on the rocks of ineffectiveness.



4. PURPOSES OF GROUP DISCUSSION

Closely related to the values already stated are the specific purposes for which discussions may be conducted. An excellent classification of these purposes has recently been made by Simpson:

A. Discussion purposes in which the development of the individual is of primary concern:

1. To provide an opportunity for developing social attitudes and the ability to adjust to others in mutually enriching ways.
2. To provide an opportunity for developing new interests by extending the frontiers of materials and activities which the individual has considered.
3. To broaden and deepen knowledge in fields in which the individual already has considerable information.
4. To give a recreative, satisfying social experience.
5. To develop objectivity and tolerance, overcome misunderstanding, and conquer prejudice.
6. To promote a critical attitude with respect to all points of view, particularly one's own.
7. To give an opportunity for experiencing the pleasure of intellectual struggle.
8. To have tested in the crucible of the thinking of others the opinions

which one holds. Will they stand the acid test of passing through the minds of one's peers?

9. To give practice in acquiring the technique of keeping the intellect rather than the emotions in the ascendancy during the give and take, the agreement and disagreement of discussion.

10. To aid in the crystallization of individual ideas.

B. *Discussion purposes which are primarily therapeutic:*

1. To give an opportunity for mental catharsis through talking certain tensions out.

2. To get help on certain personal problems by exposing them to the more objective points of view of others.

C. *Discussion purposes in which the group gain is of primary concern:*

1. To learn the process of "collective thought" so that the group activity may lead to better group results.

2. To gain group approval of a particular plan or project which is designed to aid discussion groups or other groups.

3. To achieve the product of "creative group thinking."

4. To select from a number of alternative plans or solutions which have been presented that plan or solution which the group will recommend as being most suitable to it.

D. *Discussion purposes which involve much competition:*

1. To negotiate to obtain the most for the group that is being represented.

2. To win approval of audience for ideas presented.

It should be recognized that in a particular discussion where a specific purpose is of major concern any one of the other possible purposes is likely, wittingly or unwittingly, either (1) to be promoted also, or (2) not to be affected in a significant way, or (3) to be defeated. For instance, in a discussion in which competition is emphasized the goal of promoting collective creative thought may be militated against; or in a discussion in which the primary purpose is simply to provide a recreative, satisfying social experience there may be developed habits of thought and action which will not promote the swift crystallization of the thoughts of the group.

The success or failure of a discussion is likely to be determined to a large degree by the extent to which those in charge appreciate with clarity the major purpose or purposes of the discussion (528:25-26, 1939).

5. RESEARCH RELATING TO THE EFFECT OF DISCUSSION

The assumption has frequently been made, and was made in this chapter, that individuals change their opinions and attitudes to accord with those of the group. Experimental evidence in support of this assumption, however, is meager. One preliminary study of social

facilitation and inhibition was made by Wheeler and Jordan (619, 1929), using as subjects twenty-six members of a sophomore laboratory course at the University of Minnesota. Questionnaires of fifty questions were given twice at an interval of one week. These two sets of questionnaires were tabulated separately. Then twenty-seven of the questions first tabulated that were found to have a two-thirds majority of "yes" or "no" responses were given a third time. At the third testing subjects were told the initial majority opinion on twenty-seven of the questions but in such a manner as to convey no impression of expectancy. The amount of change produced by group opinion was obtained by subtracting the average of the percentages of the opportunities to change under conditions of "chance" and after majority opinion was made known to them. The results showed that group opinion, under the conditions of this experiment, both inhibits and facilitates disagreeing individual opinions. If the vote of the majority of the group exerts a great deal of influence upon any individual, the crucial factor is whether the majority is right or wrong.

Murphy and Likert (415a, 1938) likewise had nothing positive to report, with respect to the modification of attitudes through group influence. In fact, the subjects whom they studied most frequently reported home influences and personal reading habits as most important in forming their attitudes.

Thouless (580, 1935-36) presented some evidence to show that positive and negative influences do not neutralize each other. Instead, the effect of influences

acting both in the direction of acceptance and of rejection of a belief . . . is not to make the majority adopt a low degree of conviction but to make some hold the belief with a high degree of conviction while others reject it also with a high degree of conviction (580:24, 1935-36).

Different results might have been obtained in another type of group discussion in which attention was directed to making a formulation that would incorporate the best thinking of all the individuals in the group.

It was along these lines that Simpson (529, 1938) made an important contribution. In one type of discussion, namely, that in which a plan or solution most acceptable to the group is selected from a number of other plans or solutions presented, the college students who were most influential *in* discussion seemed to be the least influenced *by* discussion. In scholastic aptitude as measured by the Otis and the McCall tests of mental ability or in emotional stability, self-

sufficiency, introversion-extroversion, dominance, and sociability as measured by paper and pencil tests, those who exerted the greatest influence on others' opinion in group discussion were not definitely superior to their fellow students. They were, however, definitely differentiated from those of low influence in discussion in two respects, namely, being Jewish and scoring high on a radicalism test.

It was encouraging that "discussion of aesthetic problems tends to 'improve' the judgments of students on problems discussed and also on similar aesthetic problems" (529:87, 1938).

In considering the implications of these findings, the reader must remember that they apply only to one type of discussion. Other types of discussion, as, for example, that in which an idea is created by the group, may involve quite different individual abilities.

Even more valuable than the experimental results is the methodology developed by Simpson. By means of a linear rating scale representing two extremes and an intermediate position on each discussion problem in eight series, Simpson obtained a numerical score of each participant's point of view on the problem about five days before it was discussed. On the same scale he obtained a rating on the group decisions from which he could derive scores on immediate group influence. About five days after the discussion took place he gave the retest to measure persisting individual influence. Thus changes in point of view of individual members could be measured.

Using Simpson's method of measuring influence in group discussion, research workers might plan to have stenographic or dictaphone records of the discussions made so that the detailed techniques through which influence is exerted may be studied. Such records would get at the heart of the problem, namely, what approaches, arguments, appeals, and facts are effective in influencing a group decision and individual viewpoints in particular situations.

Another assumption underlying group discussion is that certain problems may be solved more effectively in a group in which the members have had varied experiences and possess diversified information and points of view than by the same number of persons of equal mental ability thinking independently. This assumption likewise has been subjected to only a meager amount of experimentation.⁴

In an ingenuous experiment R. L. Thorndike (578, 1938) sought to determine whether "discussion in a group tends to carry the group toward a correct rather than an incorrect decision." The factor of majority influence was allowed for, and the problems discussed were

⁴ See page 10.

interesting ones which had a determinable "right" answer and yet were difficult or controversial enough for disagreement to arise. They were, moreover, problems about which the individuals would have some information or basis for judgment. Such problems as the following were selected for the experiment:

- a.) Determining the better of two pictures.
- b.) Determining the better of two poems.
- c.) Determining which of two newspaper headlines has greater social significance.
- d.) Determining of two attitudes, which is the more favorable toward war, church or birth control.
- e.) True-false information questions on geography, economics, politics and current events.
- f.) Determining which of two fears is more prevalent in college women.
- g.) Determining the more disagreeable of two deprivations.
- h.) Determining the course of future events (578, 1938).

The subjects were college students in all grades, including first-year graduate students. They discussed the problems presented in groups of four, five, and six.

The procedure was for individuals to make independent decisions first, recording the degree of their confidence in the decision. The group then discussed the problem and gave a group decision.

It appears from the experiment that a majority vote of individuals is a little better than an average individual's judgment and that a group discussion lends an additional small advantage. It is encouraging that "individuals tend to hold the right answer more tenaciously than the wrong answer," especially if the individual is initially confident that his answer is right. Individuals were more likely to change their point of view with respect to problems of fact than with respect to problems of value.

One can only speculate as to the intangible outcomes of group discussion. It is evident that they may be either "good" or "bad." Certainly the experimental work reported on the effect and efficacy of group discussion is far from conclusive. It is possible that the active process of thinking through a problem under an able discussion leader and in a stimulating group might affect the individual's attitude far more than was the case under laboratory conditions.

Another approach to the study of the effect of group discussion on those who participate was made by Acheson (1:55-56, 1932). She obtained students' reaction to discussions led by the dean of women in their institutions. She found that students are sensitive to the dean's ability in leading discussion. A relatively large number of

students made keen comments on this phase of the dean's activity. Among the 295 favorable comments were the following: The dean

presented all sides of the question.
discussed vital problems in which students were interested.
developed an informal, well-directed discussion.
made students feel free to express opinions.
led, but never dominated.
seemed to have a fine understanding of student problems.
never forced her ideas on the group.
has a keen and stimulating mind (1:55, 1932).

Among the thirty-five unfavorable comments were the following:
The dean

dominated the group and did all of the talking.
let the discussion go around in circles. Had no objective.
went into too much detail.
was apt to argue on minor point.
did not have a clear idea of what she herself thought.
tore answers to pieces and satirized them.
said the usual hackneyed things about college life (1:55-56, 1932).

6. EVALUATION OF GROUP DISCUSSION

Evaluation of group discussion has been attempted through the observational method (640, 1934). The steps in the procedure are as follows:

1. Exploratory observation in a sampling of classes in which running accounts of co-operative planning and discussion were made. From these preliminary notes a code was formulated to guide future observation.
2. The code was memorized and applied in classroom situations in which students planned, reported, or discussed. Independent observation by the investigator and his assistant showed 90 per cent agreement. Consistency of observation was tested by obtaining the coefficient of correlation between scores of observations for half periods on alternate days.

The investigator suggested that this instrument be used by the classroom teacher to evaluate individual student's participation in co-operative planning and discussion.

Having obtained an accurate record of the discussion, the investigator can analyze it in terms of techniques employed. Fansler (185, 1934) did this with stenographic records of a forum discussion, an informal discussion group, and a panel discussion. Such an analysis

illustrates concretely techniques of discussion—how the leader brought the discussion back to the subject, how he introduced humor to lighten the situation, how he attempted to smooth over personal antagonism, how he failed to develop a significant point, and many other techniques which the leader did or did not employ.

E. COMMITTEE WORK

Committees are small groups, usually from three to nine in number, delegated to carry out a specific piece of work within a given time. Thus the direct objective of the committee is to get something done, and it is to the necessity of achieving the objectives within the time allotted that a good deal of the growth of the members may be attributed. This necessity also involves the importance of arriving at a good as well as a prompt solution and the obligation to work co-operatively. When one considers the amount of important work for social improvement that is delegated to committees, in the League of Nations, in our own legislative bodies, and in industrial relations and educational policies, it is surprising that educators lay so little emphasis on education for effective committee work. A study of Follett's *New State* (199, 1926) and *Creative Experience* (198, 1924) will give a deepened sense of the importance of committee procedure as well as of other group techniques.

Very little research has been done on committee work. Clinical study in this field is represented by South (539, 1927), who set up some simple laboratory problems to throw light on optimum size, composition, and time allowance for committee work. His groups consisted of three and six members respectively. From these experiments it appeared that the type of problem was the determining factor in optimum size of committee. If the problem is such that all pertinent different solutions are likely to be made by three persons, the smaller number is obviously advantageous. Some problems, however, can be solved better by having more minds to present possible solutions.

South also found that committees of one sex were more efficient than committees of both sexes and that some types of problems were better delegated to women and others to men. Introverts seem to differ from extroverts in the types of problems which they can solve most efficiently. Interest is probably an important factor, with method of approach having some bearing. Pressure of time may be either an advantage or a disadvantage. A time limit is less conducive to greater effort on the part of women than on the part of men. In general, a time limit led not only to quicker but to more accurate work.

In contrast with South's laboratory approach to the study of committees is the study of vital committees in action such as those of Hader and Lindeman (231, 1933). These investigators worked with joint committees of employers and employees in industry where the solution of problems has far more importance, reality, and complexity than in the laboratory. After experimenting with the values of simple committees with specific, noncontroversial objectives, the ambitious experimenter may find a fascinating profitable field of research with joint committees whose task is to find practical solutions for seemingly irreconcilable beliefs and goals.

Out of experience, general reading, and discussion the following suggestions for committee work have been extracted.

I. FORMING THE COMMITTEE

Tradition, reviewed in the light of other experience and consideration of objectives, will probably form the basis of decision at this point. Three main alternatives may present themselves: (1) the committee is appointed by the dean or teacher, (2) it is appointed by the student president of the larger group, with or without the approval of his executive committee, or (3) it is nominated and elected by the whole body. Joint committees may be representative of different bodies, and this is one way to achieve "cross-fertilization" of groups. Whether appointed or elected, the composition of the committee may be based on one or more of several criteria: (1) proved ability to work together to a satisfactory conclusion, (2) common interest in the problem, (3) representativeness of differing points of view, (4) sheer convenience of meeting, (5) diagnosed need of the particular experience a specific committee will give, or, lacking a better reason, (6) more equitable division of labor. It is useless, however, if not positively harmful, to appoint an individual to a committee on which he does not wish to serve.

2. THE CHAIRMAN

The chairman may be (1) appointed from outside, (2) arbitrarily selected, as by the name happening to be mentioned first, or (3) chosen by the committee itself. In some cases rotating chairmen may be the best choice. The chairman may be chosen because he has decided leadership ability, or, where guidance is available or the committee is tolerant and helpful, because he needs, or the group needs, to have new leadership ability developed. Potential leaders may be tried out on relatively unimportant chairmanships to determine their fitness or to develop their fitness for more significant responsibili-

ties. This element of growth and progression is vital, both to the continued success of organizational life and to the development of individuals. Some educators take the view that a beginner, of all people, should not be allowed to fail. A genuine, successful and recognized responsibility undertaken for the good of the group, no matter how humble, may start a process of growth, whereas failure due to too great a responsibility in the beginning may harm the individual and deprive the group of a good potential leader.

Just how much step-by-step help should be given to a new chairman is a nice question. "Let him sink or swim" is no longer considered good advice from a swimming teacher. On the other hand, independence is to be achieved. At least we can say that a chairman should have someone with whom he feels free to consult when difficulties arise. Thus unnecessary trial and error are avoided. Probably it is also well to have a more experienced person ready to point out possible ways of doing things that are not discovered by the chairman himself. A good way to have this advice free from authoritarianism is to have succeeding chairmen leave cumulative records of techniques they have found helpful. There may be an exchange of these notes among committees. Any chairman is, in his small way, a "group leader." It is his task to see that the potential abilities of each member are co-operatively employed.

3. THE COMMITTEE PROCESS

A committee usually goes directly to its task without much formality or parliamentary procedure. Decision should be made as to the advisability of having minutes or procedure recorded. If the objectives or any other pertinent matters are not clear, the chairman may give the setting in which they are to work. A good chairman usually makes a genuine effort to see that there is real consensus before decisions are reached, either as to method or conclusions. A small committee is just a step more complicated than the situation in which an individual is charged with a responsibility or faced with a problem to be solved. The thinking and acting process is similar. Large committees may have to resort to division of labor and the appointment of subcommittees or delegation of individual tasks, but this should not lapse into a mere division of labor which could better have been assigned in the first place. It is the acceptance of a "declaration of interdependence" which makes a committee a group.

Some of the steps in committee work are: (1) defining the problem, (2) weighing alternatives, (3) determining methods of pro-

cedure, (4) acting to produce desired results, (5) reconsideration at the points where difficulties are encountered, (6) summary of points needed for future reference, including self-evaluation, and (7) report to the sponsoring body. Committee work in this stage follows the procedures of group discussion already described.

F. CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

Study of the group-work process is both dynamic and intricate. Through observation the structure of interpersonal relations may be described. Through interviews, questionnaires, and the sociometric technique the feeling aspect of these relations may be ascertained. Through an historical study of group work in a particular institution the developmental process may be understood. A combination of methods constitutes a "total-behavior-in-its-setting" approach by means of which the complexities of human behavior in groups may better be understood.

Experiments on methods of group work, including the atmosphere created in a group, have yielded important hypotheses regarding the differences in behavior resulting from different kinds of leadership. By describing the structure and dynamics of the total situation, the investigator is able to throw light on the group-work process as well as on the end results.

In the use of play therapy case-work methods and group-work methods have been combined. Out of skillfully directed group activities has resulted understanding, greater happiness, co-operativeness, and social adjustment in the case of individuals.

Expert leaders of discussion groups have published many practical suggestions regarding procedures. Theoretically these suggestions seem eminently sound. What the actual effect of specific techniques or general methods is upon the members of the group or upon the efficiency with which decisions are reached or problems solved has not been determined. The few experiments do not support the enthusiasm generally expressed for the discussion method. The reason for these somewhat negative results may lie in the artificiality of the experimental conditions or in an inferior quality of group discussion. Attempts to describe accurately, to analyze astutely, and to measure some of the effects of a variety of real live discussions seem to be the more promising types of investigation in this field.

G. RESEARCH NEEDED

Research on methodology of group work is as valuable as it is difficult. The initial work already done on accurate description,

analysis, and interpretation of groups as sociological wholes should not only be continued but extended to many kinds of "real life" group activities.

From this consideration of research in methods of group work, two main lines of investigation emerge. One is the observation, recording, and insightful analysis of group activities—research *in vivo*. The other is the technical laboratory dissection and analysis of artificially set up activities. The synthesis toward which research seems to be moving is the application of the most precise laboratory methods possible to vital, on-going life activities. The proper study of group workers is groups—real groups, functioning with a high degree of verve and vitality. Leaders of groups of different ages and cultural backgrounds engaged in varied projects have laboratories for valuable experimentation. In such groups one factor at a time should be changed and the results of such modification studied. A similar study of apparently unsuccessful groups might likewise prove rewarding.

Personnel workers have to deal with complex wholes. For that reason research on isolated factors is not especially helpful to them. They need rather to know what complex outcomes are likely to arise out of such complex situations as those with which they are confronted. Fortunately, as some of the investigations in this chapter have demonstrated, research is slowly moving toward a study of patterns. From multiple correlations to canonical correlations, to matching methods, to concern with congruence, to pattern analysis, and finally to insightful analysis of case studies of individuals and groups, research has progressed in the development of methods of studying more adequately the intricacies of human behavior.

CHAPTER XI

ENVIRONMENTAL INFLUENCES ON GROUP ACTIVITIES

THE organized groups and informal activities already described require a physical setting to facilitate the group process. Some of the activities take place in the classroom or in committee rooms or social rooms of academic buildings. Others are centered in student union buildings, while still others are most appropriately carried on in student residence halls, fraternity and sorority houses, and off-campus houses.

A. CLASSROOMS FOR CONFERENCE

Some of the newer college buildings, such as the "Cathedral of Learning" at the University of Pittsburgh, have classrooms designed for conference. In the beautiful Chinese room, for example, the usual rows of seats are absent. In their place is a large round table about which faculty and students sit. Still smaller social rooms provide meeting places for spontaneous groupings. Thus the physical equipment in academic halls may contribute to effective discussion and to the educational objectives of the curriculum.

B. STUDENT UNION BUILDINGS

Many colleges and universities have attempted to improve their program of social education by providing a special recreation or social building. The objectives to be attained by such a building are the centering of social life on the campus, thus making it unnecessary for students to take to roadhouses or other undesirable centers of commercialized recreation. The social building provides recreation, rest, and cultural opportunities for the student living off campus, and brings all students together in a physical proximity which facilitates acquaintanceship of old and new students, men and women. Through the social building these values may be realized at a minimum expense to students.

The separate social building on a college campus is usually known as a student union building. Thwing (584, 1935) pointed out that student union buildings in the United States follow but do not imi-

tate the English Cambridge Union of 1815 and the Oxford Union of 1823. "The union embodies for students the rights, duties, privileges, responsibilities which belong to a social group" (584:128, 1935). The majority of union buildings are planned for the use of both men and women. A student building should be "large enough to be quiet, lovely enough to be restful, and free enough in its management to be normal and natural" (602:140, 1925).

Some of the union buildings provide a small theater for dramatic productions, lectures, and concerts. Some also feature a chapel. Game rooms and a library are part of the necessary equipment. A few rooms are usually provided for permanent residents, and for transient guests such as alumni or visiting speakers.

One junior college at Highland Park, Michigan (159, 1938), equipped a large house adjacent to the junior college wing of the high school building to serve as a college union. The basement was used as a game and recreation room; the first floor for club meetings and social functions; and the second floor for study rooms, rest-rooms, and offices for student organizations. A cafeteria lunch was served from the main school kitchen. A director, who is a member of the faculty, supervised all social and recreational activities, and also counseled students. A committee of six students, representing both classes, formulated rules and scheduled time and space for group activities. Such a building would fill a definite need for any metropolitan junior college, high school, or liberal arts college or university.

The commons in a union building may fulfill an important social function. It is a natural center for the kind of informal groupings prevalent in life outside of college. Hill (264, 1937) described in detail the activities of the commons on the ground floor of the union building at the University of Indiana. The cafeteria, men's grill, and soda shop, open from 7 a.m. to 11 p.m., are social centers of the university. Every afternoon the student band plays for entertainment, and on Saturday afternoons and Sundays the opera and symphony concerts were heard over the radio. The co-operative dining room served approximately three hundred students at each meal. More than one hundred students were employed in the commons at an average wage of \$24-\$25 per month. During the first months of service of the union building devices were used to encourage students to come there, but soon such artificial incentives became unnecessary.

The quality of student life at the commons becomes the major concern of the director. At Iowa State Teachers College the effort was made, with marked success, to extract the maximum of educational

value from the informal and organized groups which gather together in this social center.

Although an auditorium, social rooms, game rooms, library, and commons are the most frequently mentioned features of a student union building, many other rooms and services are often found in such buildings. The following physical facilities were considered desirable by one writer for a completely equipped student union (243, 1938):

Administrative offices (union)	Library
Alumni offices	Locker and check rooms
Art rooms	Magazine and newspaper rooms
Ballroom	Men's and women's lounge
Banquet rooms	Music room
Barber shop and beauty shop	Organization offices for activities
Bowling alleys	Pool and billiard room
Branch post office	Radio broadcasting room
Cafeteria	Reading rooms
Cigar, candy, and news counter	Reception room
Committee and conference rooms	Restrooms
Co-operative student store	Shoe-shining stand
Dining room	Smoking rooms
Faculty rooms	Soda fountain
Game rooms (cards, chess, checkers)	Swimming pool
General lounge room	Tailor shop
Hotel rooms	Theater
Information bureau	Washroom
	Writing room

In the union buildings of some university campuses almost the whole range of group activities are represented (435, 1941; 555, 1938; 559, 1938). Among the activities and facilities are musical programs, followed by an opportunity to meet the visiting artists; facilities such as hobby shops and photographic dark rooms, where students may engage in their favorite pursuits; quiet, comfortable libraries, where faculty and students may browse through books from open shelves; round table dinner and luncheon meetings of various committees, executive boards, and discussion groups; art exhibits planned and hung by students; formal and informal dances, receptions, and parties; groups gathering to hear and discuss radio broadcasts and victrola music; faculty and students chatting in the union lunchrooms and private dining rooms; small friendly groups chatting, reading, or playing games; and committees, clubs, and other organizations using offices and rooms in the union building.

The value of the union building depends upon the manner and extent of its use. It is most important on campuses having no other social centers to unify campus activities. In every instance the student union should be an intrinsic part of the total educational pattern of the college, closely integrated with the whole personnel program.

C. RESIDENCE HALLS

The living arrangements in the majority of colleges and universities are the stage for experience in group living. Introduced in America as little more than a shelter and a protective device for women, the college residence hall in some institutions has become the center of students' intellectual and social development. In the early days of higher education for women, the women's college always provided dormitories, and the relation between social and intellectual life therein was close.

Cowley (126, 1934) distinguished among three dominant philosophies of student housing in the United States:

1. The British, in which the residence hall was the center of students' formal as well as informal education.
2. The German, which ruled out, as undesirable, any concern with the student outside lecture halls.
3. The American, which is the product of the impact of English and German, a compromise system providing, for a certain number of students, bodily shelter and varying degrees of social education.

The last-mentioned type of residence is, as yet, maintained considerably apart from curricular life.

Residence halls in the United States cover a range from extreme lack of attention to housing facilities for students, especially in the case of men, to major consideration for this phase of college life. It was surprising to learn that only one-fifth of the student population in the seventy-five colleges and universities studied by Hand (236: 148, 1938) were housed in dormitories. One-third is probably more representative of the country as a whole. One-fourth were reported to be living at home, 8 per cent in rooming houses approved by the college, and a tenth in fraternity or sorority houses.

Under such a condition of diversity supervision in residence halls would likewise vary. The adult director, when appointed primarily for disciplinary purposes, was naturally considered by the students as an enemy rather than as a friend. When the head of a residence was assigned the responsibility of "mothering" the girls, her interpretation often seemed, in their eyes, to be "smothering." In an in-

stitution in which the English system prevailed students and teachers became friends, living in close natural association. An increasing number of colleges and universities now employ a professionally qualified person to counsel students, and to help them, in other ways, to extract the optimum of educational value from their group experiences in the residence hall. But at the extreme of aloofness from strict supervision or oversolicitude there are still a few institutions in which certain faculty members live in physical proximity to the students but have no direct responsibility for their guidance. All of these types of adult leadership may be found today in colleges and boarding schools, but in different proportion from that of early days.

A brief description of the physical characteristics of several housing units will indicate the type of group activities appropriate to the newer residence halls. For technical details of planning residence halls readers should consult Hayes' authoritative book on this subject (255, 1932). More details relating to the management rather than the construction of residence halls may be obtained from the admirable survey made by McHale and Speek (370, 1934).

The House Plan at Harvard (370:60-63, 1934), as established in 1930, consisted of seven units, each housing from 200 to 290 undergraduates. The membership was chosen in about equal numbers from the three upper classes. When a student has been accepted by a house master, he is assigned a room which he is expected to occupy during the remainder of his college career. Thus these students are provided not only with comfortable living quarters and common dining halls, but also with facilities for academic work, social life, and informal athletics.

At the head of each house is a resident member of the faculty, who serves as master, and is assisted by a senior tutor. A group of professors chosen from various fields of knowledge serve as associates. Conference in the various fields of concentration are held by a dozen or more tutors, some of whom live in the house.

Each house has an easily accessible library, a dining hall, common rooms, and squash courts. With a few exceptions, each student has his own room, and each suite its own bath and usually a fireplace. Students are expected to eat most of their meals in the dining hall, and pay for a minimum of at least ten meals a week. Somewhat formal dinners, to which the associates and distinguished guests from outside the university are invited, dances, mixed luncheons, teas, and special entertainments and festivals are planned under the direction of the undergraduate house committee. Thus emphasis is put upon social relationships and social education.

Typical of recent developments in dormitories for women are the Balch Halls at Cornell University (370, 1934; 256, 1931). The four separate units of these halls accommodate in all 320 students. Each unit is complete, except that two kitchens serve the four dining rooms. Practically all the rooms are single and have been furnished attractively and comfortably. Each hall has its drawing rooms, its clubrooms provided each with piano and kitchenette, and its large recreation room. Equipment for formal dinners is available, and used frequently during the year when faculty and men friends are invited. On such occasions informal conversation is encouraged in the evening by having dinner coffee served in the drawing rooms.

At Mount Holyoke (102, 1936), in seven upper-class houses, a nonresident member of the faculty serves as house dean, and comes regularly two or three times weekly for dinner, teas, and other social functions. Associated with the house dean in each house are a group of honorary fellows—faculty, alumnae, trustees, and friends outside the college. These persons usually come on guest night and sometimes talk a few minutes after dinner to stimulate general conversation. It is the resident fellows who assume the major part of the responsibility in each house and collaborate with house dean, college physician, and student officers in planning group activities and other aspects of living together. These resident fellows may spend one-third of their time on graduate study. They work on college projects, students' interests in hobbies, and house libraries. Most of these features of the Holyoke plan result in closer relationship between the academic and the nonacademic phases of college life.

The cottage plan was installed in both Bennington College and New Jersey College for Women. At Bennington (370:53-54, 1934) twelve old New England frame dwellings house twenty students each. Each of these houses includes an apartment, with separate entrance, in which one or more faculty members live. These faculty members are entirely free from custodial or disciplinary duties. Each house has individual bedrooms, living room facilities, kitchenette, and laundry. The dining rooms, however, are located in a central commons building. These small, self-governing house groups serve as "centers of social life and informal faculty-student contact."

At New Jersey College for women (370:63-64, 1934) the supervision of the forty-nine cottages and the five larger residences are under the direction of the dean of women and several assistants. In each house there is a student committee for governing purposes. As in the Harvard plan, the membership in each house is a cross section of classes.

In general, men's residence halls have not developed as adequately as women's. At the University of Minnesota, however, Pioneer Hall (454, 1937) provides accommodations for 536 men in sixteen units, each of which has its house officers. Special features of this dormitory are the two well-furnished lounges, two recreation rooms, a browsing library containing eight hundred volumes, and a flexible student government organization. The house has eight graduate counselors, who are concerned with the mental as well as the social development of the residents. The hall also has its own weekly newspaper.

As prerequisite to the integration of social and intellectual life in the residence halls, Cheek (102, 1936) suggested three essentials—participation of faculty and other adults; a head of the residence having intellectual interests and attainment, fine social sense, sincere interest in individual students, and qualities of character that command respect; and a good library within the residence hall. Faculty members, married or unmarried, on some campuses, are brought into the houses freely as guests of individual students.

D. STUDENT OPERATED HOUSES

Fraternity and sorority houses might be considered as forms of cottage organization, student operated, which present special advantages and problems. The fraternity, being a small congenial group, helps its members to adjust to college life, by offering an easy transition from parental guidance to fraternal guidance. Once within the group, friendships are quickly formed and certain standards of conduct and scholarship become operative. Because of the family pattern, members acquire the idea of "making good" within the group. Because of the opportunity for mutual choice, old and new members have a sociometric basis for personal satisfaction in their association together.

Robson (489, 1933) emphasized the importance of co-operation in improving the house management of fraternities and sororities—"co-operation within each group, co-operation among groups, and co-operation of groups with the faculty and administrative officers of the institutions" (489:75, 1933). The same kind of co-operation is likewise needed with respect to the group-work process.

Co-operative housing arrangements which enable students to reduce living expenses in college have been developed in many colleges (370:77-87, 1934). Details of management are given in two articles about the co-operative dormitories at Iowa State College (478, 1938) and about the students' co-operative association at the Uni-

versity of Washington (5, 1937), which in 1937 operated ten rented co-operative houses, accommodating about 325 students. The students in these houses pay for what they get. In some institutions they do all of their own work, while in others each student is given a task that is estimated to require an hour or as little as a half hour of her time each day. In addition to enabling students to go through college more cheaply than would otherwise be possible, the co-operative plan of living has been found to have the therapeutic value attributed to manual work; to increase knowledge and skill in various phases of homemaking, including consumer education and standards of living; and to promote fellowship and friendliness.

E. ROOMING AND BOARDING HOUSES

Many institutions of higher learning still depend upon off-campus houses to provide accommodations for their students. About 40 per cent of the 151 teachers' colleges studied by the American Association of Teachers Colleges (556, 1940) do not require dormitory residence for either men or women. Practically all of these institutions have restrictions relative to living in private homes or boarding houses. Among the restrictions are those insisting that "the residence be on the approved list and that accommodations be inspected and supervised." Only a small proportion of the teachers' colleges have fraternity or sorority houses.

At the University of Wisconsin Butts (83, 1937) reported that: 18 per cent of the students lived in fraternity houses which offered dining, social, and recreational opportunities and selective choice of residents.

15 per cent of the students lived in dormitories which offered all the above except selective choice of residents or fraternal ties.

26 per cent of the students lived in rooming houses which offered little more than shelter.

"In physical facilities, lounges, game rooms, musical instruments and similar equipment, offered for the common use of students" the dormitory scored highest; the fraternity houses almost as high; and the rooming houses much lower. The residence halls for women were superior to those for men.

In addition to the problems of student living in the college residence hall, off-campus housing involves problems relating to the householders, and the safety, healthfulness, and social facilities which they furnish in their rooming and boarding houses. The sanitary and nutritional aspects are usually handled by setting up standards which householders are required to meet; by inspecting the houses to see

whether standards are being maintained; and by educating householders through discussion at teas, regular meetings, and special training courses for house directors. The present trend is to recognize the importance of the householder in the educational scheme, and to help her to fulfill more loyally and effectively her position of responsibility.

Provision for the social development of students living in off-campus houses has been less satisfactory than provision for their physical welfare. In addition to bringing such students into touch with group activities on the campus, the personnel director has the responsibility for helping them to develop a satisfactory group life under the existing rooming conditions. To accomplish this would be a most important contribution to the education of students who later go out into teaching positions, or other vocations which involve similar living conditions. If, in college, these students learn how to invest a rented room with some of the elements of beauty, to improve from association with persons having different interests and standards from their own, and to contribute to the group aspects of life in the household, they will have had effective social education in its most practical sense.

F. VALUES OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF HOUSING

Various values have been claimed for different types of housing, especially for college operated residence halls and sorority and fraternity houses. The residence hall has certain administrative advantages as well as potential health, intellectual, social, and emotional values. If the college can accommodate a certain proportion of its students, better off-campus arrangements can be obtained than if the college is entirely dependent upon householders in the community. Moreover, the college operated residence can set standards of health, sanitation, cleanliness, lighting, furnishing, and equipment which private houses may emulate because of the competition.

Health in the dormitory is promoted by sanitary conditions, by an adequate diet supervised by an expert dietitian, by the encouragement of sufficient hours of rest and relaxation, and by congenial associations.

Intellectual development is fostered by the stimulation of contacts with other students and special guests, usually of an informal, conversational nature, but occasionally taking more organized form. Examples of the latter are planned discussions following a radio program, or a brief opening up of a subject by a guest speaker. Libraries in the residence hall offer an invitation to read under more

comfortable and pleasant conditions than the college library. Regulations regarding quiet hours and study periods help the more immature student to budget his time more sensibly than he otherwise would.

Even more important are the opportunities for social and emotional development through a diversity of contacts. Out of these varied contacts may grow a sense of belonging to a group and an understanding of human nature. The social life in a dormitory, as in a family group, may promote personal development through the demands made upon the individual for sharing, for co-operation, for maintaining standards of social relations, and for subordinating certain individualistic impulses to the expectations of the group. Through the experience of living together in a residence hall, students may acquire appreciation of fine human relationships. But they should not be subjected continuously to the impact of personalities. All students, some to a greater extent than others, need the solace of solitude. Accordingly, the residence hall should provide for each student some place where he may gain perspective and the sense of direction that arises out of meditation. Aesthetic experiences (447, 1940)—pictures, music, beauty of color and line in the furnishing of the residence hall—may likewise contribute to the student's spiritual resources.

The sorority or fraternity house claims to possess all the values attributed to the residence hall. In these small congenial groups the feeling of unity may be stronger than in the college operated residence hall. Moreover, the fraternity groups usually have greater continuity of association. These advantages, however, may be characteristic of residence halls organized in small units or on the cottage plan.

Although the attitude toward off-campus houses is more negative than positive, certain potential values in this form of housing should be recognized. Chief among the advantages are the opportunity for students to develop self-reliance and to learn to live in the world as they find it.

The greatest values are realized when members of the group who live together also share common intellectual interests. Dividing students into houses or colleges helps to individualize education—

builds up a spirit of morale and community interest with other students of their house in a way that is impossible where those with the same intellectual interests meet only in regularly stated class time, and where those in dormitories or fraternity houses have only a superficial, or "social" community of interest among them (84:412, 1939).

Nowhere today on this planet are there more ideal "laboratories" with finer equipment for developing youth for the world of tomorrow, learning how to live with people, observing others' rights and their own obligations, becoming aware of human values in a socially sensitive way for the "science of society" that must dawn soon if civilization is to continue (334:64, 1939).

G. RELATION OF HOUSING TO SCHOLARSHIP AND PARTICIPATION IN GROUP ACTIVITIES

The foregoing summary represents the opinion of personnel workers. It is more optimistic than that of the students, or than conclusions based on the measurement of certain limited phases of students' development. Studies of opinions of students (236:150-51, 1938) as to the relative values of different types of housing are likewise subject to a number of errors. Errors may be due to failure to allow for larger numbers in dormitories, and to the fact that those who have had only one kind of housing experience lack an adequate basis for judging the relative values of different types. Accordingly, opinions should be obtained only from students who have had experience in several kinds of housing units.

One group of 571 girls in a university (288, 1939) were interviewed concerning their attitudes toward six phases of collective living. The 1931 group of freshmen expressed less unhappiness in their dormitory or sorority affiliation, less rebellion against residence house rules, far less awareness of social snobbishness and artificiality in social relationships than did the 1933 group of freshmen and juniors. Almost half of both freshmen and juniors in 1933 admitted having had difficulty in living with a group of their own sex. Such interview data is subject to the unconscious bias of the interviewer and, for that reason, difficult to interpret.

A more analytical study of student opinion at the University of Wisconsin (83, 1937) was based on replies from 703 students selected as a representative sample of the student body. The aim of the investigation was to ascertain the differences between students who live in organized or semi-organized groups and those living primarily by themselves, i.e., not identified with an organized group. The following were the major differences reported:

1. Students in organized groups have an initial financial advantage.
2. Students in organized groups surpassed the students in unorganized living groups by an average of .098 grade points.
3. Students with one roommate had highest scholarship, those

with no roommate next highest, and those with more than one the lowest scholarship.

4. Students living in dormitories and fraternities participated extensively in intramural athletics, while those in rooming houses were practically nonparticipants.
5. Students who expressed a desire for additional group life or social interaction were those who were already living in organized groups.
6. Most students, both men and women, preferred to have a roommate.
7. Students in organized groups more frequently discussed personal problems with other students; few went to faculty advisers or deans.

Several more statistical attempts have been made to study the relation of housing to college scholarship and participation in group activities. One of the earliest of these studies was made by Grote (230, 1932). She compared students living in the residence halls of a state teachers' college with those living in their own homes near the college, those living in their own homes away from the college town, those in boarding and rooming houses, those who did light housekeeping, and those who worked for room and board. These six types of housing were studied with reference to six factors relating to the students: intelligence, high school record, hours of study per week, scholastic record, extra-curriculum or social activities, and days' absence due to illness. Although the observed differences in intelligence, high school average, study hours, and scholarship were not statistically significant for groups under different housing conditions, the dormitory group on that particular campus had an advantage in health and social experiences.

A more recent and comprehensive investigation by Walker (605, 1935; 606, 1935) was based on records of 2,574 students who matriculated at the University of Chicago from 1926 to 1930, and 771 who matriculated during 1931. Walker collected the following items of information about the students: grades, length of attendance at college, amount of work completed, scholastic honors, amount of participation in extra-curriculum activities, their high school grades, personality ratings in high school and college, psychological examination scores, age of university entrance, and parents' education and occupation. Housing was classified as private homes, private rooming houses, residence halls, and fraternities.

The statistical computations were adequate and appropriate to the data. Gross averages of the criteria of success were obtained and

quantitative comparison of types of housing were made through the use of regression equations. An especially important phase of this research was the study of the relation of change in type of housing to university success.

The residence hall group was significantly above expectation, and the rooming house and chapter house groups significantly below expectation in respect to the factors in university success. More specifically, the residence hall groups of men and women stayed in college longer, completed more majors each quarter, made the highest average grades, had the smallest proportion of dismissals and withdrawals because of poor work, and the largest proportion of enrollment for graduate work. In short, the residence hall groups were significantly above the other groups in their scholastic record. The only point on which the students in chapter houses ranked high was in participation in extra-curriculum activities. Even in this they were excelled by residence hall groups and by fraternity members in other types of housing.

A more specific question, "What environment is most conducive to study?" was investigated by Brother Richard (484, 1936). He made a comparison of the achievement of three groups of college freshmen equated according to their high school averages and scores on psychological examinations. Differences were found in favor of the supervised study hall as the best study environment. The mean grade indexes were as follows:

Private room <i>vs.</i> supervised study hall—(46 cases)	1.99 <i>vs.</i> 2.23
Study at home <i>vs.</i> study in private room—(25 cases) . .	1.78 <i>vs.</i> 2.07
Study at home <i>vs.</i> supervised study—(25 cases)	1.78 <i>vs.</i> 2.34

All the differences were statistically significant. Further analysis of the data indicated that freshmen below average ability benefit most by supervised study, whereas environment seems not to affect the achievement of those above average ability.

Of the investigations on the relation between housing and college success, the research by Walker recognized and controlled the largest number of factors. Obviously the difference in scholarship and participation in extra-curriculum activities may be due to any of a number of factors other than housing conditions. Among these factors are the mental ability of each group; their high school record, which is somewhat indicative of the functioning of their mental ability in relation to school tasks; the occupations of the parents; the cost of living in the different types of houses; the time spent in remunerative work; their health, and other selective factors. When these factors are not controlled, the only conclusion that can be

drawn is that, in the institution studied, supplying a certain quality of group life in the different houses, the groups of students who live in these different types of houses by chance, by choice, or by necessity, attain certain different degrees of success in college. Conclusive evidence on this problem can be obtained only by studying a number of groups of students who have lived in different types of houses, some first in one type and then in another, and other students in the reverse order.

H. FACILITIES FOR GROUP ACTIVITIES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

In the majority of high schools little space is provided for informal group activities. For the most part, clubs must meet in classrooms, dances and parties are held in barnlike gymnasiums, and committees huddle together in out-of-the-way corners. Classrooms too often are built for recitation rather than for conference. In contrast to these conditions are the new schoolrooms described by Engelhardt and Engelhardt (177, 1940). The English room, for example (177:106, 1940), at Jackson High School, Michigan, has a stage at one end and tables and chairs which can be arranged in any groupings desired.

Obviously there is needed in the high school small social rooms for clubs and committees; an auditorium for dramatic performances, concerts, panel discussions, and similar events; a gymnasium that can readily be converted into an attractive dance floor and setting for parties; a reception room with checking room facilities; and small and large dining rooms with well-equipped kitchen. The responsibility of the school for providing facilities for students' participation in social and avocational interests has been emphasized by Engelhardt and Engelhardt (177, 1940). In a chapter on social recreation spaces and cafeterias, they described and presented plans for a social recreation unit which would serve both students and adults in the community. The recreation room should be provided with game tables, a radio and phonograph, storage cabinets, provision for wraps, bulletin board and space for the quieter recreational activities. In another chapter (177:101, 102, 1940) diagrams for a guidance unit including a council room and small conference rooms, as well as offices for all special guidance workers in close proximity, are presented. Thus large and small group activities are facilitated in the public schools by the physical setup and equipment.

In connection with a junior and senior high school in California (545, 1937) a club house was established. There students were free to engage in various kinds of activities—solitary pursuits, hand-

work and art, informal and organized groups. From observation of their choice of activities, significant information was obtained about stages in the social development of adolescents. Boys and girls in the early junior high school years tended to avoid spontaneous social groups in which they later became greatly interested.

Dormitories for high school students are few, and appear to be decreasing in number. A survey of dormitories for high schools (293, 1937) in the United States showed only fifty-seven residence halls for public high schools operating in the United States at the time of the investigation. The majority of these were in South Dakota. A number of dormitories have been discontinued because of cost and the improved roads, autos, and buses which made the dormitories unnecessary. In general, students were permitted to live elsewhere if parents were willing, and all students were permitted to spend week-ends at home. Because of the inadequate provision for maintenance, these dormitories did not seem to be able to develop the kind of social life that would be an important part of adolescents' education.

By making life in the high school and on the college campus vital and appealing to students, the educational institution helps to prevent them from seeking their recreation in undesirable places off the campus, or outside of the high school building. At the same time the school has the responsibility for gearing their informal group work into constructive recreation and education in the community, so that the transition from school to community life will be rewarding and sure.

I. CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

Living conditions may facilitate or inhibit group work in secondary school and college. The group-work process may be facilitated by the selection of members who are homogeneous in purpose and heterogeneous in interests, abilities, and experiences. It may also be facilitated by healthful and sanitary surroundings and by space and equipment adequate for groups of different sizes and objectives. Of greatest importance is leadership in the living units which can evoke and sustain student initiative and self-direction.

Although several investigations have indicated superior scholarship and greater participation in group activities on the part of students living in residence halls, we must remember that these investigations were conducted in a limited number of institutions, and that, in general, the quality of supervision in residence halls is markedly superior to that in rooming and boarding houses. The residence

hall is increasingly becoming an integral part of the entire educational program, becoming a center of intellectual as well as of social life, and including libraries, recreation rooms, and opportunities for aesthetic experiences. Unless fraternity houses play a similar role of intellectual stimulation and offer equally good cultural and social advantages, they will eventually lose out. Any type of housing unit should be a "laboratory of intellectual and social growth" (370: viii, 1934) in which scholarly achievement, the creative use of leisure time, and vital and spontaneous living are fostered.

However, there is probably no one best type of housing. For some students the college centered residence hall may be best, while for others off-campus houses may be made to contribute more to the student's preparation for life. Within a residence group individual differences in students should be recognized, and adjustments made for the students for whom that particular form of organization would not be appropriate. In choosing the type of residence unit to develop on a particular campus, the personnel worker should consider a number of factors. Among these are the educational policies and the location of the institution, the present and future needs of the students, the size and character of the community, and the relation of the institution to the community.

It seems reasonable to suppose that living units closely resembling the kind of life students will subsequently be required to face will have the greatest educational value. For such a situation permits study of the art of living together under initially unfavorable conditions, with a view to improving them. Therefore the more nearly the living unit resembles the family group and gears into community group life, the better laboratory it becomes for social development in the broad sense. From this standpoint the ideal living group is one which includes a relatively small number of students, together with a real family unit including one or more small children. One would expect the maximum of learning to result when living in college or boarding school is most like real life.

If, on the other hand, the college residence is isolated from community life and artificial in its associations and activities, the four years spent there may interfere with rather than promote the student's best adjustment to life. In such a situation the college student lives chiefly with his or her own age group, often almost exclusively with members of his or her own sex. She has had little contact with the old or the very young, or with persons of markedly different social and economic status. Thus she builds up a set of attitudes and habits peculiar to "college life." If she has been popular and active

in campus groups, her four years have been an interminable scherzo. When she graduates, she finds adjustment to other age groups, to lack of college activities, and to the slower tempo of outside life difficult. Or, she may have become surfeited with social contacts, and go to the other extreme of withdrawal from family and community groups.

J. RESEARCH NEEDED

Almost all the conclusions reached in this chapter are based on opinion rather than research. Moreover, it is the opinion of the adults who are responsible for students' living conditions, not the opinion of students themselves. Accordingly, research is needed to ascertain more accurately the values to individual students of living in different types of groups. Following Walker's methodology, the investigator should collect data on individual students in different institutions, and study changes in their attitudes, scholarship, health, the extent and quality of their participation in group activities, when they shift from one kind of housing to another kind on the same campus.

Another type of investigation involves follow-up study of students who have left school or college. Such an investigation should answer the following questions: What kind of lives do students lead after they leave school? How many go into small communities to teach? How many obtain work in cities? What living arrangements do they make? In what ways did group life in high school and college aid or hinder them from adjusting to life in the community?

Along the same line is an investigation of the changing social interests of students through high school and college and later on in life. How did these interests originate, how were they modified, what did the program of social living in the educational institution contribute to the development of these interests? What relation exists between expressed interest and social conduct?

Equally fundamental is the study of the selection and education of persons who will supervise the physical and social environment of students.

All of these types of investigation are important because the environmental forces and the way the student perceives them are influencing behavior in ways not yet understood either by the students or the adults who are given responsibility for their guidance. Only on a basis of knowledge can the pattern of college life be altered intelligently.

CHAPTER XII

✓ EVALUATION OF GROUP WORK

DURING the last ten years marked progress has been made in the evaluation of outcomes of education in general. Notable work in this area has been done by Wrightstone (639, 1936) and by Tyler (591, 1940) and his associates. The following statements represent progressive tendencies in techniques of evaluation:

1. Evaluation is made in terms of changes which have actually taken place in boys and girls.
2. The changes studied include interests, attitudes and other dynamics of behavior, and conduct as well as knowledge; in other words, how students think and feel and act.
3. The evaluation process is continued through a period of time long enough to "appraise behavior patterns that mature slowly."
4. Individual differences in situations to be evaluated at various schools and colleges are recognized by appraising outcomes in terms of objectives toward which each institution is working.
5. The effect of the evaluation process on teaching and learning is considered.
6. Emphasis is placed on continuous self-evaluation on the part of students, faculty, and administrative officers.
7. A wide variety of methods of appraisal of student growth are used, including observation of students in natural situations.

Evaluation of group activities has long been based on some of the above-mentioned principles, in theory if not in practice. In 1926 Counts (124, 1926), in an article on "Procedures in Evaluating Extracurriculum Activities," made three suggestions along the lines of those developed more recently by Wrightstone and by Tyler. He advocated (1) "clearing the atmosphere of current assumptions" with regard to the value of group activities, except insofar as those assumptions rested on carefully sifted evidence; (2) appraising the activities in terms of desirable changes wrought in individuals with maximum economy of time and effort; and (3) making the evaluation specific, from the standpoint of the individual student following a particular educational program, and taking into consideration many factors—the activity; the degree and character of its regulation; the

abilities, educational history, home and community surroundings of the student; and after-school influences. In accordance with the philosophy expressed in the first chapter, changes in the school and community, as well as in the individual, should be measured as completely as possible.

A. EVALUATION IN TERMS OF CHANGES IN STUDENTS

Employing methods of measurement developed in subject matter fields, investigators have attempted to evaluate the informal group activities in terms of improvement in marks in school subjects. To be sure, improved scholarship is sometimes coincident with participation in group activities, but it is not the most direct outcome that might be expected. Nor is change in the number of infringements of school discipline an adequate criterion for appraising a constructive group-work program.

Among the changes in the individual student that might be expected to result from group activities are ease and security in social contacts, spontaneity in human relations, willingness to share, ability to appreciate other persons and to work co-operatively with them, elevation in values and standards, and increasing satisfaction in wholesome types of recreation and worthy use of leisure.

Such outcomes of group activities are obviously difficult to measure or to describe with precision. Paper and pencil tests yield results that are difficult to interpret. Observation supplies information on overt behavior only. Although the interview may help in the interpretation of the observed behavior, it is subject to the bias of the interviewer and the person interviewed. Since no single method of studying changes in the way persons think, feel, and act is satisfactory, information obtained from a combination of methods and synthesized in a case study offers the best basis for evaluation. In the case study the investigator may trace sequences of individual behavior which may be related to group contacts.

Additional information may be gained from the autobiography, or life history. The intimate, detailed life history, obtained through the interest and co-operation of the student, is an excellent means of ascertaining the influence of student activities on the development of widely different individuals. In such an attempt to study the sociological factors in the development of gifted young adults, recognized by their acquaintances as being outstanding in some talent, Faris (186, 1936) found that the most significant factors are relatively obscure and subtle, operating in the more private mental proc-

esses of the individual and not always closely correlated with the more obvious external features.

B. EVALUATION IN TERMS OF THE GROUP-WORK PROCESS

Evaluation of group work requires diary records¹ or case studies of the activities, as well as of their effect on the individual members. Such continuous descriptions or periodic résumés of the group-work process have several possible uses. What goes on in the group may be synchronized with what goes on in the individual, and the influence of the one on the other studied. The group-work process itself may be analyzed in the light of the objectives of the program and the generally accepted philosophy of group work. Through co-operative evaluation good-will and understanding on the part of the students may be generated.

Informal evaluation in each group may take the form of "post-mortem" sessions. These sessions consist of reports of projects or events by those in charge or by retiring officers and chairmen. The report should include statements of good and poor features, including ways by which good results were achieved and poor results might be prevented in the future. All students should be encouraged to offer criticisms and constructive suggestions.

In evaluating informally the group-work program as a whole, numerous questions to guide the analysis have been suggested by investigators. The following list contains some fundamental but rather general items:

Does the program reach each student?

Does each student show growth?

Are superior students being exploited?

Is any organization outgrown?

Are all phases of life represented?

Should some organizations have curricular rank?

Is leadership being developed?

Is individual responsibility being developed?

Is the social program integrated sufficiently with the curriculum?

Are all possible community facilities being utilized? Such questions would be asked at the end of the year and would vary with the situation at the particular institution.

A significant contribution to methodology was made by Thrasher (581, 1932) in his outline of procedure for ascertaining whether a boys' club is influencing its members in desirable ways. He first set

¹ See pages 229-230 for an account of a stenographic record of club activities.

up the following list of requisites of information which must be obtained:

1. The type of boy who is being reached must be known.
2. Club boys must be compared with non-club boys of the same type.
3. Boys who join the clubs must be compared with themselves—as they were before with as they were after they joined.
4. Boys who drop out and cease to be members must also be studied.
5. Comparisons should be made between various groups within the club itself.

The case study method of obtaining personal data about a boy was recommended in order "to determine all the factors which play upon him and to give a basis for an analysis of his conduct in terms of the probable causes involved." The case study method should be supplemented by the statistical method, which contributes a description of groups, and the ecological method, which is "a study of the distribution of various types of boys and the characteristics of their social backgrounds in the area of study" (581:16, 1932).

The most adequate social analysis of group activities in college communities (37, 1929) would involve techniques of social observation, life history, case work, and interview. These personal-social techniques are necessary in ascertaining the inner life of college communities. Social intelligence and the will to social adjustment appear to be potent factors in the social development of students on the campus.

C. EVALUATION BY MEANS OF CONTROL GROUP EXPERIMENTATION

By far the most significant experimental study of the group-work process is by means of a series of controlled situations, such as those set up by Lewin and his associates (345, 1940). These experiments have already been described on pages 244-248. By modifying one procedure at a time, the effect of different methods on specific groups may be determined.

A less fundamental type of evaluation is that which has been applied to the outcomes of certain "group guidance" classes. Very few attempts have been made to obtain experimental evidence of the value of these classes. On the high school level Lincoln (349, 1937) applied one criterion, a *Vocational Information Test* prepared by Brewer and Lincoln, to almost fourteen hundred ninth-grade students who had had some organized instruction in occupations and

to approximately four hundred in control groups made up of uninstructed students. All students were given the *Vocational Information Test* at the beginning and at the close of a definite period of time.

The gross differences in mean score for the major groupings were as follows:

	Net Difference $M_2 - M_1$	Critical Ratio
Control group—no instruction.....	2.73	
Instruction through homerooms.....	2.79	.08
	3.98	1.125
One civics class.....	9.33	5.59
Classes for educational and vocational information		
once a week.....	5.27	5.70
five times a week.....	8.63	11.87
four times a week.....	5.10	1.656

It will be noted that the differences found in the case of the civics class and the classes in educational and vocational information held once a week and five times a week were statistically significant.

On the educational information test two of the homeroom classes and the English class made slightly larger gains than did the separate classes in educational and vocational information taught once a week. The separate classes taught five times a week showed superiority in score to these other classes of only approximately two points. Further analysis of related factors such as "degree of comprehensiveness of reasons for choosing occupation," "degree of utilization of sources of information regarding occupation," "breadth of contacts," "flexibility of plans" showed an advantage in favor of the groups in which special counseling and instruction was given.

Another experiment with 107 high school students by Bateman and Remmers (31, 1939) indicated that the study of occupations by means of a career book tended to produce a less favorable attitude toward the occupation chosen for study. It appeared that the students gained a more realistic and less stereotyped view of the world at work as a result of their study.

On the junior college level Bennett's control group experiment (35, 1938) "to measure objectively some of the outcomes for students of experience in the semester courses in orientation" yielded results which did not warrant generalizations concerning the efficacy of "group guidance" with respect to the making of educational, recreational, and vocational choices, to the improvement of scholarship, to mental hygiene understandings, or to participation in stu-

dent activities, leadership, and happy social adjustment. Bennett concluded:

Comparison of two groups of orientation students, one with and one without considerable instructional and reference material at their disposal, indicates that significant gains in information about guidance problems are not likely to result from lecture or discussion methods alone (35:127, 1937-38).

Another experimental study of guidance in groups was made by Ross (496, 1939). By means of a control and an experimental group taken from the lowest fifth of the freshmen, as they ranked on their entering intelligence tests, Ross set out to "determine what effect a frank and friendly discussion with low-ranking freshmen regarding their test scores would have upon their general morale and work habits, and consequently upon their achievement" (496:152, 1939). Although the study was somewhat limited in that only forty pairs of cases were used, the results in favor of the experimental group which received group counseling as to their low standing were marked. Ross concluded that counseling low-ranking freshmen has promise and that it is worthwhile to let a student know his score on the intelligence test.

D. EVALUATION OF GROUP ACTIVITIES BY STUDENTS

The largest amount of work on evaluation of group activities has been along the lines of opinion surveys. Several representative surveys of this type will be described in some detail. Students contributing information to the Commission on the Relation of Schools and Colleges of the Progressive Education Association (517, 1941) were asked "what they would have done in the matter of activities had they the opportunity to repeat their college experience" (517:213, 1941). Nearly eight hundred responses of students at seven colleges were obtained. Their suggested allocation of time was as follows:

The majority said they would spend their free time socially with other students; only 5 per cent said they would not spend their time in this way. The other percentages of preferred activity were:

17	per cent	expressed a preference for	athletics
14	"	"	"
14	"	"	"
9	"	"	"
6	"	"	"
			publications
			art, literary, dramatic activities
			musical activities
			religious and social service activities

general, favorable to the activities. This favorable response may be partly due to sampling, for rarely does a representative cross section of the school population reply to the request for information. When only 50 per cent or fewer of the graduates respond, the investigator has no way of knowing whether those who replied were those who had successfully participated in student activities or those who were disgruntled by the program.

A good example of a follow-up study which supplies information about the extent of participation, as well as the opinion of high school graduates, is that reported by Cory (122, 1935). The students replying had during their high school years engaged, on the average, in fourteen to sixteen activities. The more recent classes, 1931 and 1932, engaged in a still larger number of activities, the average in the case of girls reaching 21.4 for the 1932 class. Both boys and girls wished they had participated to a greater extent. Having been out of school long enough to realize their deficiencies, they felt the need for better preparation for their long hours of leisure.

They gave as reasons for not having participated to a greater extent: lack of time, initiative, or knowledge about the activities or enthusiasm for them. In these reasons are implied certain criticisms of the program—the activities may not have been properly presented, well sponsored, or sufficiently varied.

Continuity of participation tends to be greatest in the music and athletic clubs. The reason for this is obvious, since a certain proficiency in an orchestra or on a basketball team must be gradually acquired, and, once it has been acquired, the player is not likely to abandon the group.

The comparative popularity of activities is difficult to estimate because a number of factors may affect participation in any one activity. Among these factors are the emphasis placed on the activity by the school, the awards given, the personal satisfaction derived, and the proficiency of the sponsor. In Cory's survey all the activities ranking high were those which helped to increase a student's self-confidence and had an important carry-over into adult life. The activities ranked high in value were business and commercial clubs, instrumental duet, vocal and instrumental ensemble, national honor society, manual training club, vocal solo, band, school paper, operetta, and junior-senior play. The activities ranked low—glider club, camera club, airplane, checkers, soccer, volleyball—are activities seldom used after graduation. Additional emphasis might well be placed on those activities which help to make adult life richer and fuller.

A larger number of additional activities were suggested. Among

those most frequently mentioned were swimming, cards, various other games, skating, current affairs, curio and antiques club, health club, folk songs and dances, art, ballroom dancing, numerous avocations, salesmanship, and public speaking.

The judgments of twenty thousand present and former students in two hundred secondary schools in the United States formed the basis for the evaluation of a scale that may be used in the study of an individual school (164, 1938). This instrument consists of two parts:

1. A linear scale of degree of satisfaction with a vast number of items relating to school experience. These items were later weighted in importance by twenty-three educators.
2. Unguided responses to the questions,
 “What do you like best about your school?”
 “What do you like least about your school?”

The results obtained from the application of the scale to this large representative group of students would serve as “norms” for an individual school. A consideration of related subjective factors would supply valuable additional guidance and research data. The validity of the results depends primarily on the success of the investigator in gaining the interest and co-operation of the group so that its members will give the most honest and accurate responses of which they are capable.

F. CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

Progress in evaluation of group activities will be made as techniques are systematically developed for ascertaining the changes which have taken place in boys and girls. Such evaluation must be individual, continuous, and many-sided. The techniques now available for studying actual changes in boys and girls are tests, questionnaires, observation, interviews held over a period of time, and life histories. If information from all sources is brought together, interpreted, and synthesized in the case study, and then synchronized with the group work in which the individual has been engaging, the most fundamental kind of evaluation will result.

Active assistance on the part of the student in appraising his growth has both research and service value. It has research value because the student is the sole source of information on ways in which he feels he has been influenced by contacts with the group. Student evaluation likewise has service value because students learn thereby to control their environment and—through control over their environment—their destiny.

Three possible lines of research in "social co-operation" may be applied to groups in educational institutions. The first type of research emphasizes the thought rather than the feeling and doing aspects by describing a concrete situation and asking the subject to analyze it into psychological factors which may facilitate or prevent co-operation. The second is the systematic study of actual groups in which co-operation is demanded. From such a study information on the conditions which appear either to maintain or hinder co-operation in specific situations may be obtained. The third type of research is that which is set up under laboratory conditions and conducted often with special equipment such as one-way vision rooms for observation and electrical recording devices. In all of these ways knowledge of the primary bases of co-operation within groups and between groups may be obtained. Thus a working philosophy of group activities which can be tested in real situations may be developed.

In planning researches in this field, the personnel worker should guard against two grave defects of educational research mentioned in a lecture by Laski: "first, trying to measure precisely the obvious and second, attempting to measure the immeasurable."

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